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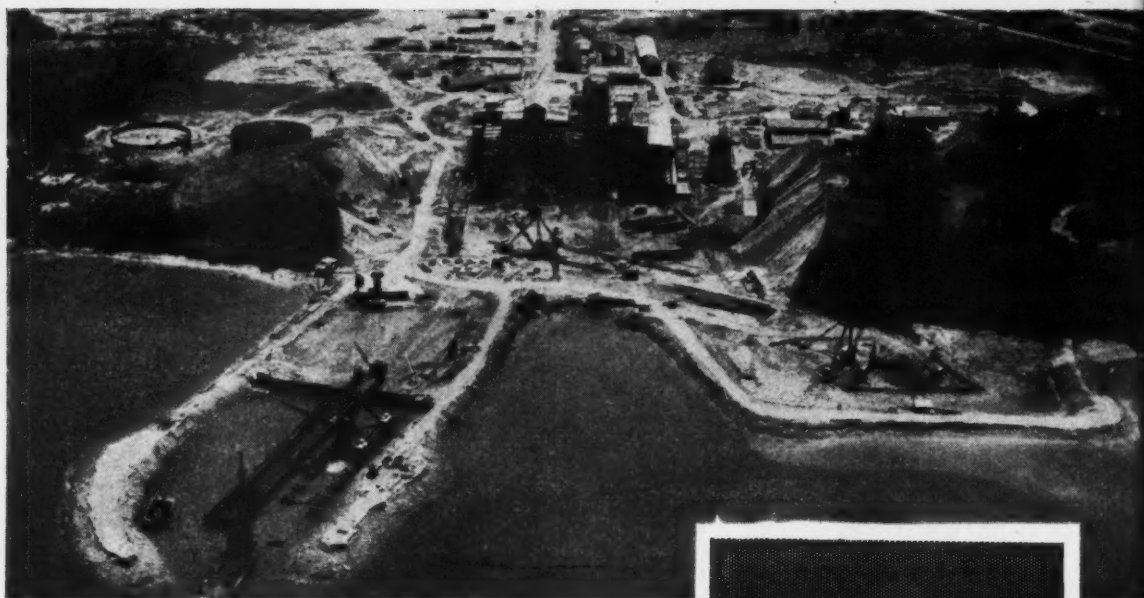
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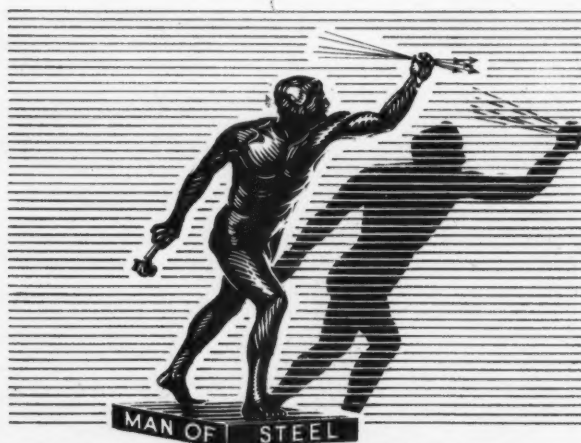
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# EASTERN WORLD

## FORMOSA

IT is perhaps fair to consider President Eisenhower's orders to the 7th Fleet more as a domestic policy concession to Republican opinion than to assign it the significance it appeared to have at the first glance. As far as international policy goes, it was certainly a bad move which precipitated adverse reaction ranging from mere uneasiness to serious apprehension everywhere in the world. The fact that the United States Government did not consult its allies in such an important matter tends to reduce them to the status of satellites—an embarrassing position which is bound to create parliamentary fireworks and which is strongly resented in Britain as well as in other countries whose troops are fighting in Korea. It is being realised by these countries that, once the new US Administration is allowed to make unilateral decisions affecting vital interests of its allies without consulting the latter, a dangerous precedent has been established which makes their future entirely dependent on American policy—a policy to which they may not always wish to be committed.

However, the main consideration at present is whether the President's step is likely to cause an extension of the war in Asia. In fact, the order to the 7th Fleet ending the "neutralisation" of Formosa is not a drastic change in US policy. Instead of guarding Formosa against attack from the mainland and preventing Chiang Kai-shek from raiding China proper, it is now only concerned with the first of these tasks, leaving the Nationalists free to invade China. This has been described as "unleashing Chiang Kai-shek," but it is questionable whether the military consequences will be as dramatic as all that. It must not be forgotten that Chiang Kai-shek has been holding the Pescadores and other island strongpoints off the China coast which are much better bases for raids than Formosa, and which were exempt from President Truman's "neutralisation" order. Yet, although the Nationalists have made use of these bases for a considerable time—also for attacks on British shipping and occasional murders of British seamen—their commando raids cannot be said to have had more than a slight nuisance value. There are about 600,000 troops on Formosa, of which approximately half are battle-worthy. No doubt the US has been generously equipping Chiang Kai-shek, replenishing the arms which his forces lost or sold to the enemy during their catastrophic defeats on the mainland, but it seems out of the question for Chiang Kai-shek to achieve his avowed aim, namely to "liberate his 450,000,000 fellow-countrymen" and to save them from "the clutches of Satan," without adequate air and naval forces which only America is in a position to give. If President Eisenhower's statement,

therefore, does not mean more than it says, such direct military involvement is, at present at least, not contemplated in Washington.

Chiang Kai-shek's chances of large-scale success seem, for these reasons, rather slim, particularly as his hopes of obtaining the enthusiastic support of the "enslaved population" appear an unreal expectation. For it was Chiang Kai-shek, and the inefficiency and corruption of his administration, which were more than anything else responsible for the Communist victory in China. It must be expected that, even if there should be some discontents on the Chinese mainland, they will quickly rally to the support of Mao Tse-tung to prevent a return of the most discredited and hated regime China has known for centuries. Thus the political effect of the adventure may be the further consolidation of the Peking regime.

Similarly, the hope of easing the situation in Korea by forcing China to withdraw troops for the defence of her coastline seems futile. China is the most densely populated land mass in the world. Her man power is limitless and she appears to possess sufficient arms to equip an adequate coastal guard. The real danger would occur if the first impetus of a Nationalist thrust were to be strong enough to cut the vital rail link between North and South China, and if the US were to commit herself openly in lending military aid to this operation. In that case there is a likelihood that the USSR would adopt a similar precisely this eventuality which is feared in Britain where and other support. It is known that Russia has 4,500 aircraft in the Far East, and the stage for an open conflict between the US and the Soviet Union would be set. It is precisely this eventuality which is feared in Britain where there is a firm and widespread determination to keep out of such a clash. Another dangerous position would be created if Chiang Kai-shek were to succeed in penetrating some way into China only to experience one of his customary defeats. It has been made clear in Britain that public opinion would be unwilling to tolerate any involvement in expeditions for the rescue of Formosan troops.

On the whole, the American step does not promise any military advantages, but only serves to complicate and ascerbate the political tension. In fact, unfavourable comment has been universal. In Asia it was seen as a move to enlist more Asians in fighting Asians and as a potential step towards the extension of the war in the East. In India, where consistent efforts have been made to end the Korean conflict, the news was received with dismay. It is certain that Indian opinion has a profound influence on Britain's Far Eastern policy, and any deviation from the present outlook would seriously disturb the equilibrium within the Commonwealth. Pandit Nehru's sincere and constant attempts to bring about a reconciliation in the Far East is greatly appreciated in London and no doubt serves the UK Government as substantial moral support.

# WESTMINSTER AND THE EAST

By Harold Davies M.P.

PARLIAMENT has been so busy with home affairs that most of the vital issues of foreign policy have been neglected for many months. Now that America has moved into a new era under the Republicans it is important that Britain clearly defines her attitude to Far Eastern problems. Members want to know if we are wholeheartedly prepared to support the programme envisaged by Mr. Foster Dulles from Korea to Malaya. Is Britain going to encourage the use of Chinese Nationalist troops? Because the Indian Plan failed to secure peace in Korea are we to just follow on and intensify the war in Korea? Are we agreed that the destiny of Japan now lies with that of South-East Asia? Must Japan be encouraged to trade more and more in this old "Co-prosperity Sphere"? All these questions and many more are left vague and unanswered, and have been so for many months.

Looking bronzed and fit the Prime Minister nonchalantly strolled to his seat at the end of question time on the last Thursday of the month. The people in the public gallery broke the rules of order and started to clap as Churchill took his seat. Because the Prime Minister's trip to the States was an informal one and his talks with Eisenhower and others were private and confidential, the House is not likely to get a full report of the discussions, although the talks will serve as a background to the formulation of Government policy. Upon one point however, Mr. Churchill appears to have been quite frank with the Americans, namely the utter hopelessness of extending the war into China. Churchill's disapproval of the American army "wandering about all over China" seems to have hit the Americans in a sore spot. Members here realise that an extension of the war in China would mean that India would end her cooperation with the Western Powers. If the United States are anxious to extend their friendship with India this is not the way to achieve that purpose. India still urges, despite Peking's rejection of her plan for Korea, that the Powers admit Mao Tse-tung's China into the United Nations.

Desmond Donnelly (Labour) again questioned the Foreign Secretary about the possibility of China being allowed into the United Nations and he could see no justification for Chiang Kai-shek's representative to be at U.N. Mr. Aneurin Bevan felt that it might not be possible at this juncture to get the People's Government of China on to the Security Council but there would be a better atmosphere, he thought, if the representative of Nationalist China were asked to give up his seat. Mr. Anthony Eden was emphatic that it was not possible to change the occupation of the seat even though we recognise the present Chinese Government, while they continue offensive military action against the United Nations in Korea.

M.P.'s of all Parties attended the functions celebrating the Independence of India on India Day. Mr. B. G. Kher, the High Commissioner, read messages from the President, Vice-President and the Prime Minister of India. Mr. R. W. Sorensen, M.P., took the chair for the grand demonstration at the Central Hall, Westminster, where Mr. Anthony Eden was the principal speaker. Mr. Eden looked forward with pride and confidence to the growing influence and prosperity of India. Lord Pethick-Lawrence, who had been a great protagonist of Indian freedom, said that the celebration was not a victory of one over the other but rather a victory of friendliness over animosity, of common sense over folly, of harmony over disorder. This made the day not only a great day in the history of India, but also a great day in the history of Britain. Mr. Attlee, who was there, will always have his honoured place in this history because of the promptness with which he honoured the pledge of his Party to the people of India when he was Premier.

For the first time in history the Asian Socialists attempted to co-ordinate democratic socialist thought by means of a conference at Rangoon. Mr. Attlee went there on behalf of the British Labour Party. He was aware of all the difficulties confronting socialist leadership in Asia and first and foremost, he thought, was lack of experience. Socialist parties in Burma, India and Indonesia sponsored the conference. From reports it seems that there were many differences of view expressed (see *EASTERN WORLD*, January, p.5). This was to be expected. One cannot expect a rigid formula of development to be worked out for these vast areas of Asia. Whether the Asian socialists are prepared to move altogether away from the influence of the People's China is still not answered. Over all these areas of South-East Asia we find the Chinese, who have been an industrious people, contributing to the economies of their adopted countries. They cannot be ignored.

Despite the seriousness of the issues facing the Commonwealth as a whole the House will not for some time, so it appears, get a chance to debate the White Paper. Members will want to know if Japan is to be forced into the orbit of South-East Asia and away from her natural Chinese market. Could this not intensify our dollar problem? According to a Japanese report Britain more than held her own in the first eight months of 1952 in the South-East Asian markets. We shipped some £250 million worth of goods compared with £58,780,000 by Japan and £42,300,000 by Western Germany. But to go on holding our own, more capital goods will have to be pushed out into the region. If we are to earn dollars for arms manufactures, might we not lose more permanent markets in these young areas that are crying out for capital goods? Japan will jump in to supply that need.

# ASIA IN WASHINGTON

By David C. Williams (Washington)

AS he sits at the White House desk where no Republican has sat for twenty years, a great variety of problems await President Eisenhower's decision. None of these are more urgent than the questions posed by the fast-moving events in Asia.

Senator Taft, who still considers himself (in spite of his defeat for the Republican Presidential nomination) the authentic spokesman of his Party, has defined the policy of the new Administration as "to get back on the track we left twenty years ago." Difficult as that will be in America, it will be impossible in Asia, where the political scene has been transformed almost beyond recognition.

One striking exception may be noted to this generalization. Even after defeat and six years of occupation, newly-liberated Japan bears a considerable resemblance to the Japan of two decades ago. It is rapidly re-taking its place as the leading commercial and industrial power of the East. After the post-war flush of leftist enthusiasm, it is once more solidly controlled by conservative leaders. The land reform, which may turn out to be one of the few permanent accomplishments of the occupation, appears actually to have strengthened the conservative forces, by creating many small peasant proprietors determined to hold on to what they have.

In view of these facts, and of the great interest Secretary of State Dulles has taken in Japan, it would not be surprising if Japan turned out to be the fulcrum of Republican Party policy in Asia. It would be a breach with Republican tradition, of course, with its great and perhaps excessive emphasis upon China. But the Republicans would be by no means the first set of politicians who, in office, see things very differently than they did in opposition.

The millions of Americans who voted for Eisenhower in the expectation that he would, in some magical fashion, bring about the end of the war in Korea, seem likely to be disappointed. Although Eisenhower has, as he pledged himself to do, visited Korea, he has admitted that he found "no panacea" there. If his meeting with General MacArthur accomplished anything other than to give a little comfort to the extreme right wing of the Republican Party, most commentators would be surprised. The feeling here is that nothing is likely to happen beyond the gradual replacement of American by South Korean troops—a process which was already well under way.

This process, however, is unlikely to result in "bringing the boys home." The conviction is growing that American troops will have to be sent to Indo-China. In addition to shoring up the crumbling French defences, this would have great advantages from Mr. Dulles' well-

advertised "global" point of view. In pushing German rearmament, as he will, Dulles knows that he runs the risk of growing French fear and antagonism. "Very well," he is likely to say, as he spins the globe, "let's do something to please French nationalists elsewhere." Support for the French in Indo-China, and opposition to Moroccan and Tunisian pleas to the United Nations, are nicely calculated to keep the Franco-American alliance intact during the painful period in which millions of Germans will receive arms.

As to China, this seems likely to be the field of a psychological rather than a shooting war. Mr. Dulles, who has strongly criticised the "containment" policy associated with Mr. Acheson, will here have the opportunity to carry out his "beyond containment" views, and foment discontent on the mainland through broadcasts, leaflets, undercover agents, and the like.

Meanwhile, in Washington, the Republicans in Congress are likely to begin a series of investigations, intended to prove that the New Deal Administrations of Presidents Roosevelt and Truman were permeated by Communists, and that the Communist triumph in China was one result of this vast conspiracy. Even before the Republicans took office, the Loyalty Review Board found that "reasonable doubt" existed concerning the loyalty of a veteran career diplomat, John Carter Vincent, because his reports from China recorded the weakness of Chiang Kai-shek and the growing strength of the Communists. For the Republicans, this will be merely a starting point for much bigger things.

Americans of good will are hoping that the new Administration will give its attention to the constructive aspects of United States policy in Asia—particularly the programme of technical aid and economic development. President Truman recommended a big increase in this programme, especially for India. One of the first tests of the new Administration will come when it declares its attitude to this recommendation. Fortunately, there are men close to Eisenhower, like Paul Hoffman, the first head of the European Recovery Programme, who realise the importance of the economic as well as the military approach.

It seems probable that both Adlai Stevenson and Harry Truman will visit Asia in the coming months. Stevenson wishes to equip himself with more knowledge of a part of the world which he has hitherto somewhat neglected; moreover, he does not wish, by remaining in the United States, to be thrust into the role of a critic of Eisenhower in his first months of power. For Truman, it will be a long-awaited opportunity to see at first hand the workings of his "Point Four" programme, in which he has always taken the keenest personal interest.



# TOWARDS THE UNDERSTANDING OF NEW CHINA

*By Lewis Gen (Hong Kong)*

IT is perhaps hard to understand the things now happening in China without knowing what the key-word "people" means to the new rulers in this country. The national army they call the People's Liberation Army; the national bank is called the People's Bank; similarly the law court and the government are known as the People's Law-court and the People's Government; even the country itself is now the People's Republic of China. There is no possible doubt that Mao Tse-tung means to make China a country for the people, but for the people minus various parasitic elements—from the landlords down to the idle intelligentsia.

With the above borne in mind, it will be easy to understand why the new order in China is in some quarters extolled to the skies, while in others it is equally strongly condemned. Here in Hong Kong where one can get in touch with people coming out daily from the continent, we find that opinion is sharply divided regarding the state of affairs in China. Most of the Chinese people residing here, it appears, have good reason to regard the present rulers in China with the utmost hatred; for it is rare to find one among them who has not a friend or a relative killed, imprisoned, or ruthlessly liquidated at home. Yet this is not enough for the general condemnation of the cause which is cherished and upheld by millions of workers, peasants and students within China itself.

Certainly, it may be hard for a landlord to understand why he should be suddenly deprived of his lands which were either acquired by himself or handed down from his ancestors through hundreds of years. It may be hard for a business man to understand why he must now run his business according to the planned economy of the country, instead of being allowed to engage in any business he likes, or make as much money as possible, and by whatever means with total disregard for the interests of the nation in general. Even the smugglers may have some good reasons to justify their 'special trade,' and they say, "To bring in cheaper things to the consumers, we risk our capital and give employment to a lot of people. We don't see why we are particularly bad compared with the rest of the community." Many of the former local chieftains, too, can produce some plausible arguments like this:—"Did I not give protection to the villagers? Did I not more than once prevent them from being pillaged by the bandits or disbanded troops? Did I not equip the small armed band by delving deep into my own pocket? If I collected a few bushels of rice for my men; what was the harm done?" Certainly, they all have some good reasons for their hatred against the new order, but they do not perceive that it was the peculiar

nature, or rather the defect, of the society they lived in before that made it possible for them to live by riding upon the heads of others, nor perceive that their strong reasons now must yield to even stronger ones—the interests of the people in general.

The Chinese populace was traditionally divided into four classes: scholars, peasants, artisans and merchants. The first, which also included the ruling class, was the most honourable one; while the last was generally mentioned with contempt, because pecuniary gain was always their primary consideration. In the new order, however, the workers are in the forefront, since among them the Chinese Communists built their very first foundations. Next come the peasants whom they made their allies some years later. But it was only after the Sino-Japanese war broke out that both the small proprietary class (excluding the landlords) and the National proprietary class received their recognized status in Mao Tse-tung's doctrine of new democracy. Previously, both had been looked upon with distrust.

Of the four classes, the workers are undoubtedly the most enthusiastic supporters of the new order, with the advent of which both production and living standards have been steadily rising. This is most evident by the remarkable improvement achieved by the railway workers which nobody who has recently travelled in China can deny. This is done by encouragement, and emulation drives on the one hand, and the enforcement of the National Labour Law and the general insurance scheme for the workers on the other. The peasants, being generally more individualistic, appear, however, not to be so active or politically conscious. For, though they do not object to becoming owners of the land they are now tilling they may not be so willing to see a good portion of their grain go to the public granary. But this does not mean that once thoroughly organised, the peasants will not show tremendous strength since it is this latent power that has enabled the government to undertake numerous huge projects at home, and meanwhile continue the struggle in Korea.

As to the small proprietary class or bourgeoisie, undoubtedly it still plays a vital role in the present economy of China. It requires a certain amount of rationalisation in order that it can be made to serve the general interests of the people. The importance of the "national proprietary class"—that group of men whose modern industrial enterprises affect the whole nation, or a large part of it—is well understood and, no effort has been spared in encouraging and giving assistance to those private enterprises which are considered beneficial to the country. But as private enterprises are all built upon the

incentive of profit and gain, and the Chinese proprietary class has long perpetuated itself in a country where there was little law to prevent it from indulging in anti-social practices or, if any, none that could not be evaded by ready bribery, it will be a long and painful process to make this class understand that the business it is engaged in is also a kind of service and that it should be content with the due the public owes it. The present "5 Anti" Campaign (Against offering bribes, against evasion of tax, against stealing public property by fraud, against scamp—thing and adulteration, and against stealing economic information from the government.) which is now sweeping over the country, has exposed many criminal acts and dirty tricks perpetrated by members of the proprietary class in their own interests and at the expense of the rest of the population. Although the government is accused of seeking to destroy the proprietary class, the fact is, the government has no reason to destroy it but rather wants it to conduct private business along the proper channels. Certainly this campaign will have a wholesome effect upon some business circles throughout China.

Until to-day intellectuals in China stood rather apart as a distinct class whether it was recognized as such or not. In the early stages of the Communist movement in China most of the leaders came from the intellectual class. The success of this movement was largely due to propaganda, and the propaganda work was, and still is, mainly undertaken by men enlisted from the intellectual class. With the Communists every branch of culture must be made subservient to the people, and nothing is considered of any value, unless it advances, in one way or another, the cause of the proletarian Revolution. Along with the prolonged struggle between the Communists and the warlords, old and new, an incessant war was waged between the Marxists and the free thinkers in China. But for lack of a highly satisfying philosophy and deep conviction, and, what is more, a respectable political organisation to rally around, the free thinkers have long given ground to their opponents in the field of ideological struggle. Now with the younger generation it has become just a matter of indoctrination, by which thousands of cadres are being turned out each month.

Having gained complete control over the minds of thousands of young intellectuals, mostly college students, the rulers of New China go forward in big strides with their vast programme of reconstruction. As for those members of the intelligentsia who are unwilling to accept the new way of thinking, it has been made really very uncomfortable for them. They have no opportunity to present their opinions, nor is it possible for them to enter into public service with their heads full of the old ideas. Even those whose special training and skill are particularly demanded have also first to go through a process of linking reform before they are admitted to the service of the people. Notwithstanding this, Chinese students were frequently reported to have come back from the United States and England and willingly taken up positions in

New China. Even here in Hong Kong we have heard of highly educated men, who gave up their good positions and went back to serve the people in their own country for a smaller salary.

In order to reconcile some of the contrasting opinions about China, it is fair to say that most of the things that have been done are things that ought to be done, but it must be admitted that excesses and errors in the way of doing them are both frequent and numerous. This appears, however, unavoidable in view of the tremendous work, the novel nature of the work, as well as the great resistance encountered. For example, in the land reform many of the excesses committed by the cadres are undeniable, but considering the vast army of the workers, and the obstinate resistance of the landlords, one will have to admit that either this Herculean work will never get started, or must just go ahead boldly, making errors and then correcting them.

It is necessary perhaps to add here a few words about the cadres in the various fields, who are entrusted with the huge task of carrying out the reconstruction programme in their country. It will be recalled that until 1947 the Communists had only parts of North China and Manchuria in their hands, but once they crossed the Yang-tse River in April, 1948, it was hardly one year before the whole of China was brought under the control of the Peking Government which was set up in the same year. To carry on the civil government in the new liberated areas, they kept most of the original personnel left behind by the Nationalists; but to undertake various new tasks, especially land reform, they had to train thousands of new cadres out of young intellectuals. They also drafted a large number of 'activists'—men and women—from among the peasants and workers. These young people are generally more enthusiastic than experienced, and consequently have committed many excesses and errors. Besides, as village cadres were also chosen out of the tenant peasants and farmhands, many scoundrels, disguising themselves as honest poor men found their way into the peasants' associations, and local governments, tyrannizing over the landlords and peasants alike. It is true that these rascals were successively purged, but it was not after a good deal of harm had already been done.

Although corruption used to be considered a hereditary disease in Chinese officialdom, the experience of the past three years has proved it is not quite so, though the officials of the new government are not all honest, especially those working in the revenue offices and the state commercial organisations. The KMT rule is gone, but the corrupt influence existing in the general community (especially in commercial circles) is still there, having crept quietly even to the heart of the new government. Indeed, the situation had become so alarming, that Mao Tse-tung finally saw fit to launch a vigorous 3-Anti-Campaign (against corruption, waste, and officialism), decreeing "Let the chief (of every public office) take the lead, and inquisition be made at every level." Since the campaign was started, it has spread to every corner of the



country, beginning with the various departments of the Peking Government itself. Every official organisation held its own meetings, at which members of the whole staff were made to confess frankly and criticize one another; and meanwhile hundreds of investigating teams were sent to government offices and state commercial organisations to examine accounts. Quite a number of high officials in Peking, Tientsin, Hankow and Canton were removed from office and handed over to the law-court for indictment, while several have been shot. Some of these were of long standing in the Communist Party. This is certainly extraordinary and unprecedented, and could well have split the ruling party by creating great confusion and endless quarrels. But the Communists appeared not to be afraid of that; they say the struggle will increase rather than decrease the unity of the Party.

However, it is worthy to note that some weeks after the "Three" Anti-Campaign went into force another "Five" Anti-Campaign, still more stormy than the former, was set in motion against the merchants to whom we have already referred in a foregoing paragraph. While this

may indicate that the policy makers in Peking may have become aware of the great danger in pushing the "Three" Anti-Campaign too far, the campaign is nevertheless a logical development, since they have found that the proprietary classes are fast sucking the vitality of the government, partly by placing their own agents into the government organisations, and partly by corrupting many of the once Puritan-like cadres by gifts, wine and women. The danger is by no means imaginary or small: for during the transition period a large number of technical and business men were taken in to staff the numerous state commercial organisations; and many of these people working hand in glove with the business adventurers would never hesitate to fatten themselves by cheating the government, and in fact, have already, as hitherto exposed, caused untold loss to the national treasury by all kinds of frauds. It was announced that hereafter the "Three" Anti-Campaign would be renewed every year, but not for longer than one month at a time. This, we hope, will keep the government clean in a country where corruption was once thought incurable.

## SCIENCE AND THE POPULATION DILEMMA

By Dacre P. Cole (Geneva)

THE serious problems raised in the address of Professor A. V. Hill to the British Association for the Advancement of Science at the society's annual meeting at Belfast can hardly be said to have attracted the attention and serious consideration which they warranted. Nor have many subsequent comments been such as to encourage attempts to resolve the dilemma which he presented. This is perhaps partly because some may regard it as academic. Many others may fail to appreciate the urgency of the population problem because it has been to a large extent solved in Europe by extensive industrialization and international exchange, by increased food production combined with a widespread voluntary limitation of the growth of families and by emigration. There may be dangerous consequences, however, if we limit our vision to this continent and fail to recognize the threat to world peace which is developing in other areas of the globe. Has a high rate of population increase, for example, been a contributory factor to the recent disturbances in Africa? While official statements on the situation in Kenya repeatedly deny that it is due to economic pressure, nevertheless these same sources, concurring with the reports of special correspondents, affirm that the "land hunger" which is growing among the members of the Kikuyu tribe and on which "Mau mau" is capitalizing to advance its anti-European campaign, has been intensified by the rapid growth of the

native population, which in turn is due in no small measure to the progress of medical services and hygiene.

Other critics have suggested that if a dilemma does exist it is one for statesmen rather than for scientists. Have these, then, given more attention to the warning given by Mr. Naotaki Sato, former diplomat and onetime Foreign Minister of Japan, who is at present the president of the Japanese U.N. Association? In a Special Peace Edition of the review, "*Contemporary Japan*," the latter calls attention to the international importance of his country's remarkably large net population increase of 1,300,000 in a single year. In view of the obstacles to emigration he feels that some drastic steps must be taken to reduce this by half if a crisis is to be averted.

"It is vital," he continues, "not only to our own country but to the entire world . . . The result can be a menace to our neighbouring countries as well as to the peace of the world. In other words the population problem of Japan is not that of Japan alone but is a problem which should be studied seriously from the international point of view, and among intellectual leaders of the world there are few who have already shown a keen interest in it."

Dr. Hill's choice of a current example to illustrate the moral dilemma facing scientist and citizen alike is fortunate one in that it brings into the forum of public discussion a pressing problem on which the spotlight

world attention will be increasingly focussed with the forthcoming United Nations sponsored World Population Conference. In an over-simplified form, the essence of the problem is the pressure of a rapidly increasing population upon a slower and potentially limited development of natural resources. Because of these two interrelated trends which ultimately determine the level of the standard of living, any remedy which fails to take both these factors into account (and up to now the population aspect appears to have been studiously avoided) is hardly likely to provide a satisfactory solution. For those who believe that the advance of modern technology in the field of food production alone offers more than a temporary solution to this problem, and also for those who are interested in obtaining an authoritative introduction to the subject, a book by Mr. R. C. Cook, scientific in approach but prepared with a view to easy digestion by laymen, entitled, "*Human Fertility, the Modern Dilemma*" (London, 1951), is strongly recommended.

One may ask why it is a man of science rather than a statesman who presents to us this moral issue with such vast political implications. In the field of nuclear energy, another sphere in which scientists have urged upon statesmen the urgency of a global solution with the survival of civilization itself in the balance, it is easier to understand that the full implications of its development are more clearly seen by those aware of its potentialities because of their close association with its development.

In the field of demography, however, there are perhaps two likely explanations. One is that the true scientist, a man of high integrity, accustomed to framing a hypothesis and proceeding objectively to confirm or reject it (rather than assembling only evidence confirming his preconceived view), works towards his conclusions in an atmosphere unclouded by the haze of intolerant dogma or by the smoke-screens of interested groups, using a method which makes it easier for him to disentangle the vital elements of a problem and draw logical deductions from them. A more tangible explanation, though related to the first, is that the issue has already been raised on the political level but having there met with an almost fanatical rebuff, it has been found expedient, "in the interests of harmony and conciliation," to defer discussion until the natural consequences have transformed the problem into a menace.

How many of us remember that a request by the countries most concerned, for the setting up of an Expert Committee to examine the health aspects of the population problem (or to determine the relation between sickness, poverty and overpopulation, since there had been denials that they were related) was summarily rejected at the Fifth World Health Assembly in May last year at Geneva, by a group of "enlightened" leaders of European civilization? Not of course without the official shedding of a few

pious tears of consolation for those countries whose sufferings would continue unabated as a result of the hustling of this symbolic "skeleton" back for a second time into the cupboard of ignorance. (It had previously been raised at the Third Assembly, 1950.) No doubt the scientist outspokenly voicing his earnest convictions, has less to fear from his frankness than the politician presenting such disturbing truths to a democratic electorate, resentful of this intrusion of unpleasant reality upon their tranquil complacency. An objective examination of the entire problem is surely the minimum satisfaction which we can concede to the progress of our civilization, regardless of the conclusions which we may draw from it. It is to the results of such an analysis that we can then apply the moral principles upon which our beliefs are based. If such an examination is forbidden, if these problems cannot be discussed, we risk a return to the pre-Renaissance darkness in which the dogmas of the Church rigidly delimited the extent of man's knowledge.

Most of us however, guided by democratic principles, have rejected the totalitarian concept that the End justifies the Means. We do not believe that we may do evil even in the hope that good may come of it. Having come to this decision we are faced with a more difficult one. It arises from the examples which we have before us of the disastrous effects of some of the altruistic programmes which have been initiated with the very best of intentions.

"If," asks Professor Hill, "ethical principles denied our right to do evil in order that good might come, were we justified in doing good when the foreseeable consequence was evil?" Presented to us in this unequivocal form our general reply would no doubt be that there was even less justification for this than for the former postulate in which at least there was the hope that the outcome might in some degree compensate for the sacrifice made. Unfortunately the insidious campaign to stifle any discussion or investigation of certain problems which might show the definite relationship between some of our humanitarian acts and their harmful consequences, has been all too successful in preventing them from appearing in any such clear-cut form.

Let us take a typical example. (R. C. Cook, chapter 14.) Between 1940 and 1950 in spite of the carnage of war during the first half of this decade, the population of Japan increased by 13 millions! Is it possible to deny that the health and sanitation measures taken by the US occupation authorities such as vaccination, DDT spraying and BCG injections against Tuberculosis, have not played an important rôle in this astonishing rate of increase? Yet General MacArthur's Headquarters, in response to protests by a small group of American officers' wives in Tokyo, refused to issue an entry visa to pioneer Margaret Sanger thus preventing her from accepting an invitation from the Tokyo Birth-Control Institute, on the grounds that the occupation authorities did not intend to interfere in the health problems of Japan! To prove their non-intervention they pointed to the enactment of an Abortion Law by the National Diet. This very legislation is

indicative of the nature of the alternatives, to which a refusal to face the issues frankly has led. In certain regions of the Asian sub-continent, the people themselves have preceded their governments in the search for a solution. Mothers, faced with a grim future of maintaining large families at near starvation level, have chosen sterilization rather than continue to bring new offspring into a world of suffering. Those who have not only adopted an "ostrich" attitude but have even been actively engaged in placing obstacles in the search for a more human solution, cannot escape all responsibility for the drastic and unnatural measures to which less fortunate peoples than themselves have been driven. This same misguided group in Tokyo as a result of further protests succeeded in obtaining the deletion of any reference to the probable results of population pressure from the Ackerman Report (a two year study of Japanese natural resources, December, 1949) because it presented "heavily alarmist arguments for nationwide population control," and because it pointed out that because of the direct link between resource utilization and population pressure, "the continuation of this rate of increase was likely to precipitate a crisis in the economy." All these attempts to conceal the real issues from the public, made no doubt in the belief that religious doctrine was at stake, in spite of the fact that as early as 1933 a book published under no less authority than the Imprimatur of Cardinal Hayes warned of the danger of overpopulation in Japan. The manifestation of this danger should still be too clear in all our minds to permit the main issues to be concealed or relegated to the background.

It is hardly surprising then that member states of the South-East Asia Region requested an investigation of the relationship between population and health at the Third and again at the Fifth Assembly of the World Health Organization. Did the problem involve more than increased food production, the field of the Food and Agriculture Organization? Had the model health projects set up on an experimental scale already indicated that large scale intervention in this direction would disturb the already precarious equilibrium between population and food supply?

Without casting the slightest doubt on the praiseworthy motives of the initiators of these projects or of their humanitarian application, it is nevertheless becoming increasingly evident that benefits such as the campaign against disease, the improvement of public health and sanitation, the reduction of infant mortality and the prolongation of life, are at the same time increasing the pressure of population on resources, and if no parallel steps are taken to regulate the resultant increase, these measures may indirectly result in malnutrition, a lower standard of living and even starvation. It is only in comparatively rich or developed countries where a certain standard of living and education has been reached that an unconscious regulation, working in the contrary sense, has been attained. In the less fortunate countries, the temporary increase in food production lasts only until

the number of people which can be supported at the subsistence level has caught up with the new food supply, thus returning them to the original level. Those who jest at a "reincarnated Malthus" cannot feel too happy if they are not immune to the human suffering which famine has brought in these parts of the world. What conditions could serve as a better breeding ground for Communism?

With all our advances in methods of cultivation, land reclamation from both sea and desert, irrigation and chemical fertilization, and the international efforts to increase food production especially in underdeveloped areas, more than three-quarters of the world's 2½ million inhabitants are still undernourished!

Warnings of soil erosion, reduced productivity of formerly rich producing areas and the approaching exhaustion of what were once considered almost inexhaustible deposits of certain essential minerals and sources of petroleum in the foreseeable future, with the increasing demands being made upon them, all give a clear indication that expansion in the realm of productivity alone is limited and point out the need for a re-examination of the entire problem.

Some critics have suggested that no dilemma really exists since all that is necessary is an increased supply of food, for example, double the crop of rice in a country like India. The suggestion is put forward as though it were a novel approach which had not been previously considered seriously. In point of fact, it is to this very end that both National and International efforts (F.A.O. Point Four, and Colombo Plan) have for many years been directed. It is precisely because of the not too encouraging situation in this domain that it is high time that attempts were made to obtain an equilibrium by endeavouring to regulate some of the other contributory factors.

The 1950/51 annual report of the Food and Agriculture Organization, referring to the rising tide of hunger, admits that "grim" is still the word for the world food situation. If evenly distributed, the average person would still have less to eat than before the war. With the uneven distribution which exists and with world trade reduced by one-third, the food situation in the less favourable areas can be imagined. In spite of the concentrated efforts which have been made to increase food production, population growth continues to outpace it. "It would all seem," continues the Report, "that hunger is steadily haunting our civilization. If the tide continues to rise, there will inevitably be also a rising tide of unrest and revolution and war."

It will be interesting to see how the World Population Conference will tackle this problem which concerns the welfare of so many millions and perhaps the future of us all. It might not be amiss for each citizen to examine its various aspects himself in advance so that he will be able to follow the important issues and separate them from the "sound and fury" which may obscure the public discussion of them when the conference opens.



# The AFGHANS and MIDDLE EAST DEFENCE

By Sir William Barton



IN the two world wars India played an important rôle in the defence of the Middle East. Her splendid armies, besides winning laurels in other fields, denied the regions adjacent to the Persian Gulf to the enemy and made a projected invasion of India through Afghanistan impossible: Indian forces kept the North West Frontier in an equilibrium.

The defence of the Middle East in the event of a third world war would be a major problem in Western strategy. Unfortunately there has been a change for the worse in the military situation in that part of the world. No longer can the West rely on India to cooperate in the defence of the countries involved. On the contrary she is offering herself a liability to the Western allies. Her statesmen proclaim that she would remain neutral: would that be possible now that the Chinese Communists have seized Tibet and the Red Flag flies along the northern frontier of India from Burma to Afghanistan? It is significant that the Russians are building a road from Russian Turkistan through Sinkiang near the Kashmir border to Lhasa, thus making vehicular traffic possible into Tibet. All this means that in the event of war India might have to meet threats of invasion at several points in the North. Contrast this with the earlier cataclysms when the menace and trouble was merely from the North West.

India is no longer responsible for that restless borderland: that is now Pakistan's affair. But the danger to India remains. It is possible that Persia may fall under communist control; on the northern border of Afghanistan, on the other side of the Oxus, Russian troops occupy the country. Afghanistan is militarily helpless; attacked from the West and the North she would rapidly collapse. Pakistan unaided could not hold up a thrust across the Indus and the Punjab into India.

Now Afghanistan, the North West Frontier, Kashmir and the Punjab may be regarded as extensions of the Middle East. Let us glance for a moment at conditions in those territories.

The ruling group in Afghanistan lacks popular support. There is agitation for political reform: poverty is widespread. Economic development is essential if the régime is to continue to exist. The Americans are helping in a comparatively small way; real progress prescribes that Kabul look to Pakistan for cooperation. A close alliance between the two countries is essential for the defence of the North West Frontier and for the protection of Afghanistan herself. It is a tragedy for both that Kabul, far from extending the hand of friendship to its Muslim neighbour, has sought a quarrel with her by flinging at her a challenge that she give up the North West Frontier and retire beyond the Indus. This would, of course, mean that the province would be absorbed by Afghanistan. The claim is based on the ground that the people are mainly Afghan and that the country was for nearly a century part of the Afghan empire. The province on attaining its freedom would be called Pathanistan.

Afghanistan, having lost the British support she had in former times, needs new friends. She rejects her neighbour, the greatest Muslim State in the world today. India could not help her without an understanding with Pakistan even if she were able to do so, which is not the case. Isolated as they are, what would happen to the Afghans if they fell foul of Russia?

Pakistan for her part would benefit from a close alliance with Kabul; it would help the solution of the problem of a restless and insecure frontier and strengthen her military position. India, on the other hand, is quarrelling with Pakistan over Kashmir. Thus the three countries, Afghanistan, India and Pakistan, which ought to be in

close alliance and working together both in the military and economic fields, are standing apart, Afghanistan and India hostile to Pakistan and the latter with a grievance against both. In the interests of world peace they must be brought together. Obviously Western diplomacy must intervene. How can the riddle be solved? The key is in India's hands; a settlement of the Kashmir problem by a plebiscite that world opinion would consider impartial would bring about a *rapprochement* between the three protagonists. Kabul would inevitably throw in its hand with India backing a diplomatic move by the West aimed at inducing the Afghan Government to abandon its irredentist adventure.

Another reason for such intervention lies in a recent *démarche* of the Kremlin in Kabul, denouncing as prejudicial to Russian interests the activities of American and French experts in exploring for oil in Afghan Turkistan, the country between the Hindu Kush and the Oxus. The warning looked like an ultimatum, but it does not appear that such was really meant. With India and Pakistan behind them the Afghans would be in a much better position to meet such affronts from their mighty neighbour. By ceasing to irritate Pakistan with an impossible claim they can have that country's friendship; they already have India's, they can have Western goodwill if they come to terms with Pakistan.

The weakness and instability of the present régime in Afghanistan constitute a disturbing element in Western strategy in the Middle East. It is essential that the conditions of life be improved in that country. Economic development on broad lines is what is most required. There is no reason why there should not be a railway link between Kabul and Peshawar. During British rule

in India the opposition of the border tribes stood in the way; they thought that a railway would be a threat to their independence. There should be no objection now as the link would be with a friendly Muslim neighbour and not with imperialist India of yesterday. Unfortunately in Afghanistan the bulk of its natural resources lies beyond the colossal barrier of the Hindu Kush in the Oxus region for example coal, oil and other minerals, with vast stretches of land irrigable from the Oxus on which long staple cotton could be grown. The difficulty would be transport. A railway is almost out of question; a motorable road which is used by lorries exists, but that is hopelessly inadequate. Possibly a system of electric tramways might solve the problem. The power required could be produced cheaply on a large scale. There are possibilities south of the mountain barrier, but the main effort should be in the Oxus region. Would developments there mean giving hostages to fortune?

In 1940 the present writer paid a visit to Kabul. Discussing in Delhi on his return to India the possibility of exploiting the wealth of Afghan Turkistan, he was told by high authority that to do so would mean making a gift to Russia. That was said at a time when Moscow and Berlin were still acting together. The position is little better now and the risk should be worth taking. Success would mean an improvement in the standard of living which would have a steadying influence on Afghan politics. An important consideration is the openings such enterprise would give for employing the border tribes and perhaps inducing large numbers of them to settle on the Oxus. Technical and material help from the West on a large scale would be a *sine qua non*. A Western policy would endeavour to provide it.

## WHAT OF THE COLONIAL DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION?

By The Rt. Hon. Lord Ogmore

**I**N 1947, with high hopes, we created the Colonial Development Corporation to establish or to assist any enterprise in the Colonies designed to increase their general productive capacity. Our view was that there must be a number of projects which, for one reason or another, had hitherto created little interest in persons or firms connected with private enterprise. Furthermore, it was assumed fairly generally, that the United Kingdom was going to be quite rich whilst the Colonies were going to be, in comparison, poor, that money would be cheap and therefore that interest rates would continue to be low and that there would be a number of projects upon which, in the near future, profit could be made. Having regard to these assumptions the Corporation was told that

it was expected, taking one year with another, to "break even" financially.

As a matter of fact none of these assumptions has turned out quite as expected. We, in the U.K., are feeling the full blast of a buyer's market and are having to fight desperately hard to export goods and services in order to survive. Experience has shown that there has not been a large number of enterprises in the Colonies likely to yield a quick return or even a slow one. Some of the Colonial territories have become comparatively wealthy by bene-

Lord Ogmore was Parliamentary Under Secretary of State when the Colonial Development Corporation was set up, and was responsible for the handling of the second reading of the Bill when it was introduced through the House of Commons. He had daily contacts with it in its early stage.



...ing from the high price of primary commodities or the trends of world trade. Examples are the West African territories, Mauritius, Singapore and Hong Kong. The Federation of Malaya would have been in the same category were it not for the Terrorist campaign and its cost. Interest rates previously  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. or  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. are now  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. and we cannot as yet say that the ceiling has been reached.

No one can blame us, therefore, for thinking again and thinking hard about the Corporation; not about its existence, not about its main intention, but about the way in which it should function. The object is sound, the performance is far from satisfactory, the future of the Corporation is a matter for fresh thought. It was a new venture and there had been no precedent for its setting up. We live and we must try and learn.

In organisation, experience has already ensured that there shall be suitable devolution on a regional basis. Nowadays only one in ten of the projects put up to regional authorities in the Colonies have to go back to London for decision, consequently regional controllers have more power than formerly whilst the Colonial people themselves are being brought more and more into the picture at every stage.

In finance, I am certain that we must do something to relieve the incubus of past failures from the affairs of the Corporation. In 1951 the trading losses were £643,404, and with office expenditure added, the amount became £1,070,043. The Corporation has published its accumulated losses from its start to the end of 1951 at £4,500,000, but, with other losses likely to come to light, it is probable that the figure will be found to be in the region of £6,000,000.

Under the rules by which the Corporation is established there can be no writing off of these losses, nevertheless obviously the Corporation is unable to finance from successful ventures the projects not yet yielding a return and provide for the repayment of £6,000,000 together with interest on this sum. It cannot be done. The Government in 1952 agreed to relieve the Corporation from liability for interest in respect of those capital advances at the date of writing off which could be regarded as dead. This provision will be a help but it does not solve the problem. In my opinion the sum of £6,000,000 should be entirely written off and the Corporation permitted to start once more without the debt clinging to their shoulders like the old man of the sea clung to the unfortunate Sinbad. If the past is allowed to bury the past so much the better. But what of the future? The Corporation must be allowed to thrive. It is not doing so as we could wish and so it needs change in its nourishment, in other words a change in the financial policy of the Government. The policy now, understand, is that the Government insists upon the Corporation acting with a private enterprise partner and rigorously scrutinises the projects it proposes to undertake to try and ensure that there shall be no losses. In addition the Government is steering the Corporation into the situation where it is becoming more and more a finance



Colonial Development Corporation

### *Hemp production in British North Borneo*

house. The Corporation was not set up to be a money-lender. It was intended to be a pioneer. This is where we have got to: the Corporation, through no fault of its own, is getting into the position where it should remove from its arms the sun in splendour and substitute three golden balls; it should change its motto from "veni creator" to "no advance without security." It looks to me as if the Corporation is being killed by neglect. In the end a frail, pale shadow of its former self will perish. Probably when that happens the Government will say "what did we tell you, these Government Corporations are no good. Much better leave it in the old fashioned way to private enterprise."

But why take any such defeatist attitude? If the great private enterprise concerns had been shaken and pulled up by the roots every year and required to show an all round profit after only four or five years of existence, few of them in their early stages would have stood the test, especially in such a new and untried field as that tilled by the Corporation.

Broadly speaking we find two types of enterprise in South-East Asia and elsewhere. The first is that which is quite likely to be successful in time; in such a case, where the enterprise has not already been tackled by private enterprise, then the Corporation can well handle it alone or in conjunction with a Colonial Government, Municipality, individual or firm. The second type of enterprise is the one more commonly placed before the Corporation. It is the kind which has probably not been tried before in the area chosen or if it has been attempted has not been tried in the particular way suggested. As an example, the Corporation was asked to undertake rice cultivation by mechanical means in North Borneo. In other words most of the projects suggested to the Corporation are highly speculative in the sense that they have

never before been attempted in this particular way and no one can tell whether they are going to succeed, and even if they are successful it may be many years before this desirable state of affairs comes to pass.

Nevertheless it is absolutely essential that the Corporation should undertake speculative projects. If they do not do so then no one else will fill the gap and if the Colonial territories are to be developed these are the very undertakings that must be tackled. Obviously the Corporation cannot do this necessary pioneering whilst its nose is firmly fixed to a rigid financial policy like a hen's beak to a chalk line. Accordingly there is a second requisite, namely that the financing of the highly speculative projects mentioned above should be separated from the running of them. It is obvious that the Corporation can play a great part in bringing into the Colonial territories the expert and technical assistance so badly needed; it can commence projects and train local people to run them; it can provide good organisation and the "know how" which is so necessary and which so many of the Colonial territories require even more than money. The Corporation should perpetually "blaze new trails" in Colonial Development, it should be a pioneer of new projects, projects which may be and are thought likely to be, of benefit to the Colonies and to the Colonial peoples. If the Corporation acts in this way it cannot be expected to risk its precious capital in them, every dollar and cent of which has to be accounted for, nor can it be expected to carry for always any capital lost in these projects and to pay a high

rate of interest on the capital so employed. This is an impossible burden on the Corporation and we must all face this fact.

If the Colonial Development Corporation acts as a supplier of technique into the Colonies, the finance should be provided for it and it should act as agent in such risky ventures. There are several sources of finance. The Colonial Development and Welfare Fund for one. The resources of the Colonial Governments for another. The funds of local government bodies, some of which are big and powerful, for a third. The Statutory bodies such as Marketing Boards for a fourth.

I have found that this distinction between finance and execution is becoming ever more usual in private enterprise. A year or so ago I was in the United States and there I was told that American civil engineering firms to-day act on an agency basis and do not risk their capital on large scale enterprises even in the United States.

Naturally under these conditions the Corporation in any big project would normally start off with a "pilot scheme," that is a try out of the idea on a small scale. Among the advantages of the Corporation trying out a pilot scheme rather than a Colonial Government is that it can operate on a wider area than that of a single Colony or even of a single region. For example, oil palms were imported from Malaya into West Africa in order to test and improve the indigenous varieties, when the investigations took place in order to ascertain whether rice could be grown with success in West Africa experts were brought in from India, West African cocoa seeds were flown off to Malaya to start a nursery there. Nowadays in knowledge, the World is a lemon, and if we want lemon squash we must squeeze the whole of it. Perhaps the Corporation on an agency basis would even try out somewhere, some time, the plan I call "The Hub and the Wheel," the centralised service and model farm with the satellite cooperative and individual holdings, but maybe this is too much to hope.

There are differences of opinion between the two parties in the United Kingdom on this question. The present Government appear to regard the Corporation as an entity which should be treated in the same way as a private enterprise company which has been through some difficult years. If it does not pay, cut its activities drastically. In the final resort, wind it up. The opposition looks upon the Corporation as a fresh element in Colonial Development. By a change in the financial structure, so the opposition believe, the Corporation can be enabled to carry out the great task that was imposed upon it—a task that will, if adequately performed, be of immense benefit to the Colonial territories, and as a result a benefit also to the United Kingdom and to the Commonwealth wealth. There would be a further advantage; to-day the development of under-developed areas is one of the major urgent and most vexed problems in the world, the force of example the Corporation could lead the way in demonstrating a technique for the handling of this problem everywhere.

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# Letters

## to the Editor

Sir,—In his article on Hyderabad, published in the November 1952 issue of EASTERN WORLD, Sir William Barton has generally depicted the inefficient way in which Hyderabad has been governed by the subordinates of the Government of India, after the Police Action and the subsequent Government by the Congress Ministers after the 1951 Elections. I am in hearty agreement with his description of the mismanagement of the State; much the same or worse could be said of misgovernment in India under the Congress Ministries.

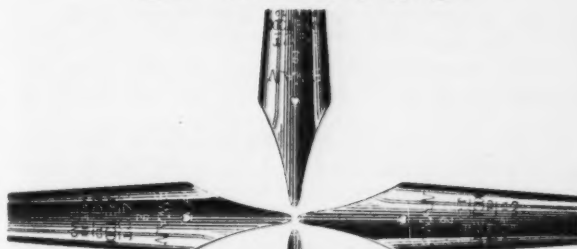
But with that, I suppose, my agreement with Sir William Barton must end. His description of the Nizam, as a pathetic figure, not being his usual self, and accepting a Governor's place does not appeal to me or any Indian reader. The Nizam must thank his stars that he is not asked to quit. His Razakars had committed horrors which are too violent and ghastly to describe. If, in spite of his active or passive connivance with the Razakars, the New Delhi Government has not brought on him condign punishment, it is due to Pandit Nehru's Pro-Muslim sympathies. The majority community in India profess Hinduism and Hindus constitute the vast bulk of the population. If the Hindus of Hyderabad have their chance to be masters in their own house, nobody can grudge them their rights after six centuries of mis-rule. Sir William Barton knows, none can know better, that on two occasions the Suzerain Power had to snub the Nizam; when he began to think that he was the equal of his Paramount Lord, the King of Britain, Lord Reading as Viceroy had to show him his proper place as a subordinate ally and not an equal of His Majesty, the then King and Emperor. The other occasion was when, due to inefficiency of administration and complaints thereon, the Suzerain Power compelled him to appoint efficient European officers as Heads of Departments. Sir William Barton could not have forgotten this. His Exalted Highness must be grateful to the present rulers of India that he was not removed from his throne, as the Maharaja Holkar of Indore was removed by the British and the Maharaja of Kashmir, a Hindu Prince, has been sacrificed to appease a Muslim ex-teacher, Sheikh Abdulla, by the present rulers. Pan Islamism is the real name of Pandit Nehru's Secularism and to ask for more concessions for either the Muslims or the Nizam would be untenable and would provoke millions of Hindus.

Yours, etc.,

U. V. SEETARAMAIA.

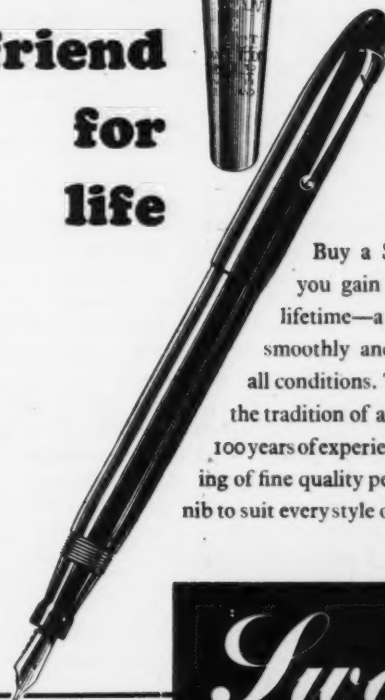
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## FROM ALL QUARTERS

### Horticultural research in India

India is relying heavily on a certain 200-acre garden in the frontier district of Saharanpur, north-west of Delhi, for the success of its drive to increase crop production by 10 per cent.

Two centuries ago this garden was the estate of a Moghul feudal lord. After the East India Company took over, its surgeons began experimenting on the grounds with the many strange new medicinal herbs they found growing in India and elsewhere. Gradually, the Botanical Garden at Saharanpur became famous for its collection of fruits, vegetables, flowers, shrubs and plants from all over the world. During the last war, a division of troops pitched their tents inside the garden. "Rare botanical specimens were mercilessly felled to provide space for barracks and parade grounds, as also to provide fuel for the canteens and walking-sticks for the officers and men," recalls Mr. L. B. Singh, Chief Horticulturalist at the Fruit Research Station. The army departed in 1947, but Saharanpur soon became a frontier transit point for immigrants from the Punjab, and "the rare and beautiful trees which escaped destruction under the military occupation, constituted the only source of domestic fuel to which the refugees had free access."

When the Indian Government in 1948 decided to set up a fruit research station, it chose the Botanical Garden of Saharanpur. The buildings were converted into modern laboratories, and a team of scientists mobilized to tackle the problems confronting India's fruit-growers. One of the first steps was to make contact with over 400 similar fruit research centres in 90 countries throughout the world. Thus, in seeking to introduce a good strain of banana, a fruit of high food value, the Station has been able to collect over 100 foreign varieties. It is testing some 200 kinds of papaya seed, and is receiving citrus samples from California, Africa and New Zealand.

Important results are expected from work with native tropical and sub-tropical plants. The mango is a highly-prized Indian fruit, which ordinarily bears only every second year. The Saharanpur Station has already developed mango trees that bear annually, and has succeeded in grafting several varieties on the same tree. Jack Fruit is an important food, resembling bread-fruit, but usually takes eight or ten years to mature. The Station is finding ways to cut this growing-time in half.

Much of India is wasteland and it is hoped to introduce the production of citrus fruits in areas which are now desert, jungle or swamp. Other long-range projects include the use of newly-discovered synthetic plant hormones (auxins) and other complex compounds to produce larger, tastier fruit, to kill weeds and insects, to help fruits keep longer in cold storage.

India's average daily diet today has been estimated at 1,700 calories per person, 300 less than pre-war (owing

to the rise in population) and from 700 to 1,300 calories below the minimum needed for health. Even this scanty food allowance is badly lacking in protein minerals and vitamins. Fruit and vegetables play an important rôle in making up this diet and one of the principal interests of the research centre is to find ways not only of increasing production of these commodities but also of avoiding the considerable wastage due to lack of certain chemicals in the soil. For example, many problems would be solved if it were known how to prevent oranges falling prematurely from the tree. Loss of fruit in this way wastes about 20 per cent. of India's total citrus supply. At the Fruit research station work is carried out with a view to extending the life of plants and trees, increasing the yield and the producing of fertilizers and weedkillers which now must be imported.

Out of greatly strained resources, the State Government has spent about 500,000 rupees (£40,000) to establish the Saharanpur Fruit Research Station. The staff of 60 highly trained botanists, chemists, entomologists and other specialists have already produced results of benefit to India's fruit growers, and their work holds great promise for increasing and improving the food supply throughout all of South East Asia. One of the problems, however, is the lack of foreign currency with which to purchase equipment essential to a modern biochemical laboratory. To meet this problem voluntary groups in the United States and the United Kingdom are being invited to send Unesco gift coupons to the research centre. With these coupons the scientists may buy what is needed from the best suppliers throughout the world without using the limited amount of foreign currency now available to the Indian Government in this critical economic period.

### US Aid for Viet Nam

A Public Works project totalling IC\$64,900,000 in counterpart funds has been approved by the Viet Namese Government and the American Economic Aid Mission. This is the largest sum to be approved for any project to date. The allocation will be spent on repairs and improvements to roads and bridges.

### Archaeological Discoveries in Ceylon

Recent excavations by the Ceylon Archaeological Survey at Panduvas-Nuvara (medieval Parakrama-Pura) about 70 miles from Colombo, at the site of what is popularly believed to be the "One-Pillar-Palace" have thrown fresh and interesting light on Parakrama Bahu the great 12th century monarch of Ceylon.

The Archaeological Commissioner, Dr. S. Paranavahne, states that the excavations do not bear out the legendary story of the one-pillar-palace in which Princess Chitra the Enchantress (4th century B.C.) was kept prisoner in order to avoid a prophecy that a son born of



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her would kill her brothers. Rather the excavations indicate that the site had witnessed events which had nothing to do with love and romance of a legendary period but were concerned with religion and politics during a comparatively recent epoch in the island's history.

The excavations within the circular rampart revealed a structure 6½ feet square surrounded by seven concentric ridges formed with earth and faced with brick. The plan is reminiscent of the manner in which the Universe was conceived by the Buddhists of India and Ceylon in ancient times, the square structure corresponding to the Mountain Meru and the seven ridges to the seven circles of mountains which were said to encompass it, and the depressions to the oceans in between these Circles of Mountains. Encircling all these it was believed was the "Chakravala" beyond which the light of the sun and moon did not travel. This "Chakravala" was here represented by the circular rampart.

During the 12th century Eastern rulers, influenced by Indian culture, raised models in miniature of the Cosmic Mountain (Mountain Meru) on the possession of which they based their claims to universal dominion. Rulers who planned on a grandiose scale built such structures in order to appear as a Chakravarti (Universal Monarch) in the eyes of their subjects.

Dr. Paranavitane concludes that the king who erected the monument at Panduvas-Nuvara was Parakrama Bahu I, the powerful monarch of this period who not only

brought the whole island under his dominion but even planned to extend his authority beyond its shores.

### **Literacy in Indonesia**

The latest survey reports 38,773,000 illiterates (or 47 per cent. of the total population) in Indonesia. The number of literacy courses has been increased from 1,331 with 53,000 students in 1949, to 87,145 courses with 2,340,000 students in 1952. Over 5,081,777 students have participated in these courses over the past four years.

### **Indo-Italian Collaboration on Ancient Manuscripts**

Professor Tucci, Director of the Oriental Institute in Rome, is now in New Delhi discussing with Dr. Raghuvara, Director, International Academy of Indian Culture, Nagpur, collaboration between their institutes regarding ancient Indian and allied manuscripts.

Prof. Tucci, who took part in the Gandhian Seminar, has returned from a visit to Nepal lasting four months and will be carrying with him microfilm copies of ancient texts. He is particularly interested in Buddhist logic as preserved in Nepal. Towards the end of this month he will visit the International Academy at Nagpur where two German scholars, among others, are working on a *shatupetaka* (one hundred-basket) plan of publishing critical editions of several hundred thousand ancient Indian and allied texts, some of them salvaged from the sands of Asia Minor.



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## BOOKS on the

### Golden Earth by NORMAN LEWIS (*Jonathan Cape*, 18s.)

Burma, in its recent state of strife and uncertainty, is almost the last country about which one would expect an interesting, non-political travel book to be written; but if such a book was forthcoming, then who else but Mr. Lewis could we expect to write it? His earlier book on travels in Indo-China marked him as a very perceptive traveller—this one emphasises it even more.

Restrictions on travel, dissuasion by authorities, uncertainty of reception and lack of accommodation were all challenges which Mr. Lewis gladly accepted. Nothing deterred him from seeing what he wanted to see. And he saw plenty: from Rangoon to the Tenasserim coast and back; up to Mandalay and beyond to Lashio, Bhamo and the northern Shan states, by every means of transport: boat, plane, vehicle and train. Everywhere he went there was something of interest to record.

His style is most commendable, and it never becomes tedious. He has the faculty, with his detailed descriptions, of making the reader enjoy the whole thing as much as he did, and the occasions are rare when he does not communicate his elated amusement at what he is doing and seeing.

Altogether we, the readers, have a most instructive and exciting trip through Burma—aided considerably by the wonderful photographs in the book—and we can only hope to have the pleasure of accompanying Mr. Lewis on another adventure very soon.

J. W. T. COOPER.

### The British Commonwealth, a Family of Peoples by SIR DRUMMOND SHIELS and others (*Odhams*, 25s.)

### The East India Company in Eighteenth-Century Politics by LUCY S. SUTHERLAND (*Oxford University Press*, 35s.)

### Sir Charles Napier and Sind by H. T. LAMBRICK (*Oxford University Press*, 45s.)

The history of the British Commonwealth and its development today come very clear from the book which Sir Drummond Shiels, heading a team of experts, has produced for the guidance of the lay-reader who requires his, or her, research to be compressed as well as comprehensive and for facility of understanding to be well illustrated by up-to-date photographs. The ground covered by Sir Drummond and his coadjutors is indeed large. To enable the conscientious reader to judge whether understanding has been achieved, a new device is adopted whereby a series of questions is given to which the answers are supplied at the end of the book. Doubtless this study will lead to a desire to examine in more detail some of the territories with which this omnibus volume so efficiently concerns itself. A useful bibliography is included; it makes a Commonwealth library of its own. Sir Drummond, in his final conclusion, emphasises the necessity of keeping always in view the background of the changing

# FAR EAST

world in which the Commonwealth developed. For example, the pioneer work of explorers, traders and missionaries began with a reluctance at home to be concerned for the welfare of the communities overseas. Then came newer conceptions. In the early part of the nineteenth century the belief held that the mission of the Commonwealth was to concern itself primarily with the interests of the people of the overseas possessions and eventually to aim at establishing self-governing communities with, it was hoped, an attachment to the mother country far away.

Of special value in understanding certain aspects of the early development of Great Britain's overseas interests are the studies by Miss Sutherland and Mr. H. T. Lambbrick. Miss Sutherland does not set out to discuss the activities of the East India Company in India, but rather to show the English political background against which the difficulties of the pro-consuls in India had to be met. She shows that the sources of many of the events recorded in her admirable treatise, arose in two different worlds—the political, financial and commercial world, with London and Westminster as its centre, and the strange and complex Indian world where "country powers" and the Company were meeting. The period which she covers deals with the first half of the eighteenth century (in one chapter), the years 1758 to 1771 (five chapters), and with 1772 to 1784 (six chapters). These are introduced by an invaluable preliminary background chapter which shows what the seventeenth century handed on to the eighteenth in achievement and promise. The interplay of political manoeuvre among parties which had not yet fully established themselves or shaken off the influence of the Court is vividly illustrated. Whatever merit there may have been in the solicitude of some members for the well-being of India or the better administration of the East India Company's Empire it was overshadowed by the desire to "dish" the Honourable Members on the other side of the House.

In the years to come much later it is happily possible to say that a less parochial spirit prevailed, although domestic party considerations were not always, or entirely, forgotten. It is perhaps fair to say that from the time of the Morley-Minto reforms British policy in India was divorced from Westminster's party strife by dint of ensuring consultation between both sides in making stage by stage advances. Lloyd George in his coalition government, Ramsay MacDonald and Mr. Churchill in theirs, gave good examples of this, but even so it may be argued that in some respects the speed of advance to what became fulfilment in Mr. Attlee's time (when, however, consultation did not take place) was retarded, despite the fact that Mr. Gandhi's passive resistance movement was, in itself ironically enough, another factor in putting the brake to work as effectively as the method of acting on the basis of party compromise in the mother of Parliaments.

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A brilliant biographical sketch of the Indian career of a born fighter, whether in the field or in the administration, provides in Mr. Lambrick's *Sir Charles Napier and Sind* a balanced and revealing illustration of the bearing of British politics on the passage of Indo-British history with which it deals. Napier was over-fortunate in his early biographers, chief of whom was his brother—soldier and gifted writer. Nor, for all his eccentricities and fiery incompatibilities, was it possible to ignore the many great services which Napier rendered. He was no dyed-in-the-wool traditionalist. He carried the spirit of John Moore, under whom he served, into his relations with the private soldier. Here he has the biographer in whom complete confidence can be placed. Mr. Lambrick's own intimate knowledge of Sind makes his book—the lambent prose of which is beyond praise—useful to the student of that part of the Old India which is now Pakistan. He does not lionise Napier, he gives a portrait with nicely adjusted light and shade, but above all he puts in true perspective the record of the Mirs in the eighteenth century and repairs some of the injustice done to their memory because of the picturesqueness of their conqueror at Miani.

British rule produced great and beneficial changes in Sind, notably in the great irrigation works, but as Mr. Lambrick reminds us, "changes in the social structure of the country derived from the influence of an alien conception of right, having no root in the indigenous order of things, could not be expected to survive the passing of the rule that sustained them." In short no one who desires

to get a glimpse of the background in this important province of Pakistan, should fail to read this book, especially as, for good measure, is thrown in a graphic portrayal of one of the most attractive heroes of his time—human, impulsive, but carrying always a conscientious sense of duty to his fellow men and those under him. If those over him were not always so well served that must be ascribed to the eccentricity of the genius in their charge. Mr. Lambrick deserves our thanks.

EDWIN HAWARD

**Punjab Prelude** by L. F. LOVEDAY PRIOR (*John Murray*, 18s.)

Miss Prior was invited to join the teaching staff of Aitchison College, Lahore, at the critical time of partition. She attempts to give some general background information on the events which led to the formation of Pakistan and in particular events in the Punjab, which area she regards as the key to the whole sub-continent. Her sympathies are entirely with the Muslims—and her strictures concerning Hinduism and Indian politics are based solely on a thoroughly Western outlook and therefore can only amount to generalities such as an Indian crowd is "dirty, hot and poor because lazy." In describing the political background of the two countries, the author has ignored the role of Gandhi and the extraordinary phenomenon of "non-violence"—and in trying to present a picture of Pakistan moderation, she has neglected to describe the

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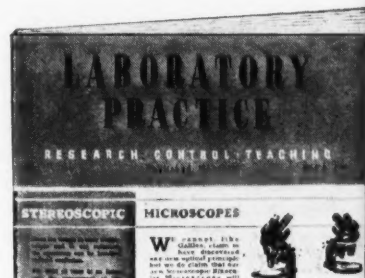
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part played by Jinnah and the intransigence of the Muslim League. It is a pity that instead of dipping into political entanglements, Miss Prior has not confined herself to descriptions of more local interest. Here, she is on firmer ground, for she is a good observer and can tell a lively tale.

K. C. REYNOLDS

**Folk Tales from Korea** by ZONG IN-SOB (*Routledge and Kegan Paul, 21s.*)

Folk tales of whatever source have an immediate appeal. Their mixture of shrewdness, native wit, magic and romance provide a key to national characteristics, and customs, while for the anthropologist they often depict actual events which have never been chronicled but simply handed down from generation to generation, embellished and altered by the tellers but nevertheless retaining a germ of fact. It is also fascinating to discover that many plots and situations are common to all civilisations—the Cinderella story, or Snow White and the Wicked Stepmother—for instance—and although the origin of these tales cannot be placed, it is often maintained that India was their starting point. However, what is certain is that with the spread of Buddhism, the folk tales of all Asian countries were enriched by the incorporation of many *Jatakas* or Buddhist birth stories, each with a moral, and Korea is no exception. The story of the "Ungrateful Tiger" in the present volume is almost identical with the Burmese tale of the "Tiger in the Trap," and the origin is almost certainly the Deccan tale "The Brahmin, the Tiger and the Jackal." A more Western counterpart is *Aesop's* fable of the Ungrateful Viper.

The five basic religious elements in Korea have each left their mark on the folk tales of the country. There are remnants of Shamanism in the stories of maidens who assume animal form, of marriages between animals and humans and, above all, of animism. Even to this day Shamanistic beliefs still have some influence over the agricultural population. Buddhism, which followed, had pantheistic features which could easily be incorporated with Shamanism and left its mark not only in the moral tales, but also, when it degenerated and became worldly and corrupt, by stories in which monks and priests are treated with scant respect. Confucianism, which followed, exerted a strong influence on standards of personal and public conduct and many tales embody Confucian ethics. Taoism has left behind certain elements such as divination, geomancy and so on which are found in many folk tales. In contrast to all this, Christianity, which was introduced into Korea in 1653 and which advocated different ideals such as love and humanity, was not readily absorbed into popular folk tales, for although it became the most powerful religion among educated people its influence among the Korean people in general was not sufficient to supplant the old customs and manners.

The present situation in Korea, according to Professor Zong In-Sob, may yet give rise to folk tales, on the subject of the 38th Parallel for instance, and stories of

heroism and endurance during the present conflict will no doubt pass into the folk literature of the country.

In addition to its value as a work of careful research, this is a wholly delightful book.

T. V. K. ELLIS

**The Hymns of Zarathustra** by JACQUES DUCHESNE-GUILLEMIN (*John Murray, 7s.*)

A serious attempt by a distinguished modern scholar to translate the works of Zarathustra into a Western language (in this case French) and to reproduce as accurately as possible Zarathustra's own words. The English version has been carefully undertaken by Mrs. M. Henning. Professor Duchesne-Guillemin, in his introduction, has reconstructed the background of Zarathustra's life and in addition to translating the poems has provided a commentary on them, and so is able to bring out the important factors of his philosophy.

R.J.L.

**Asia Major.** New Series Vol. III, Part I.

The new series of this learned Journal, which resumes the earlier series interrupted by the war, continues the academic tradition established so securely by its forerunner. We have already had occasion, in noticing Vols. I and II, to remark on the solid contributions to Oriental scholarship which might not have seen the light but for this Journal.

This part carries, as frontispiece, a photograph of the erudite editor, Dr. Bruno Schindler; a congratulatory address in Latin, signed by members of the editorial board, faces the photograph. This commemorates the Editor's 70th birthday, his deep knowledge of a variety of languages, of religious systems and allied studies; his humanity towards all who need his help and guidance, and wishes him many more profitable years.

The accompanying articles provide rich fare indeed. A penetrating article on a Parthian coin-legend on a Chinese bronze (by O. Maenchen-Helfen) is well illustrated and illuminating. The second part of Professor Simeons' "Functions and Meanings of *Erl*" is as informative as his former study; Dr. Schindler himself contributes grammatical notes on three Chinese particles; H. Franke writes a fully documented answer to the question "Could the Mongol Emperors read and write Chinese?" The second part of the late J. K. Rideout's close study of the rise of the Eunuchs in the T'ang Dynasty but makes one lament the more deeply the premature death of this scholar. The Rev. A. C. Moule contributes a paper on Relics of the Monk Sakugen's visits to China, and E. B. Ceadel has collected the strangely neglected Oigawa poems in Japanese, with transliteration and translation, and the preface by Tsurayuki. This last writer has also compiled, and published here, a list of the published works of the late Professor Gustav Haloun of Cambridge.

No Orientalist can (or would wish to) ignore such a publication!

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### Land and Peasant in Japan by ANDREW J. GRAD (*Institute of Pacific Relations*, \$3.50)

So much is heard of Japan as the leading Asian industrial nation that it comes as something of a surprise to be reminded that over 46 per cent. of its population are peasants. There has been very little research, except by the Japanese themselves, into Japanese agriculture and farming generally, with attention paid less to the political aspect than to economics and productivity and the position of the peasant. In this introductory, but nevertheless extensive, survey, Dr. Grad has investigated, from statistics pre-war and from an advantageous position with SCAP after the war, every aspect of peasant agriculture. Mr. William L. Holland points out in his foreword that this survey "does not purport to be a definitive treatment of what is clearly a complex and . . . changing problem." There is, however, no doubt that Dr. Grad has done a magnificent job in making up for the deficiency of such research "until such time as a more comprehensive study can be written" from information which will no doubt "be made available by a sovereign Japan."

The author's researches lead him to some sound conclusions. The problem in Japan is much the same as in other countries of Asia. The land cannot sustain the large number of peasants; and that will not change for some time, if at all, at the present rate of increase. Expansion of the labour force in industry is one solution, but there are already large numbers of un- and under-employed persons in the cities. Introduction of birth control methods are having no noticeable influence on peasant families, and compared with some other countries of Asia the Japanese peasant has fewer opportunities to improve his position because, unlike China and India for instance, there are no more areas available for cultivation. But, on the less gloomy side, famines are practically unknown in Japan and there is "a system of life, crop and cattle insurance which, though far from satisfactory, gives some relief. . . ."

Many other facts and conclusions emerge from this survey, and it is to be hoped that results of further study by Dr. Grad, or some other of his calibre, will not be long forthcoming.

J. W. T. COOPER

## REVIEW OF REVIEWS

AS one of the two main protagonists on the stage of Asian politics, India deserves the most discerning study. She is, at the present time, the only nation which can effectively offset the influence the revolution in China is having on all other nations and movements in the Far East. In simple terms, the pattern of future political development in South-East Asia may well depend on the example set by India. China has gained a certain initiative in providing a successful agrarian revolution for other countries to emulate; India has much to show, but the results may not appear as spectacularly successful to some



Asian eyes as the results in China. What is India achieving? Where does she stand in relation to the West and to the rest of the East?

The annual number of the *Eastern Economist* for 1952 has set out to answer those questions in a most exhaustive study. The theme is "India in the Free World," and the assessment is developed in three parts: political, economic and cultural. In the first part the "geopolitical and political factors are set out"; in the second "the structure of India's economic bonds are laid out in terms of national income, international trade, agriculture and industrial production, finance and planning"; and in the third section the structure and trends in opinion are briefly described. The conclusion reached is that "India's destiny lies in the Free World"; that, given time, she will become a great Power and a great democracy; and that her "managers" in government and in private industry and agriculture must have a clear understanding of the task ahead.

In its section on agriculture the *Eastern Economist* says that "Indian farming and the Indian farmer have to be raised to the level attained elsewhere in the world," but nowhere does it give prominence to the question of credit facilities for Indian farmers. M. L. Dantwala, in an article on the subject in *Pacific Affairs* (Vol. XXV, No. 4), says, "one way to secure an increase in production in under-developed economies is to link it with a social purpose . . ." and he goes on to state that no serious attention has yet been given to the problem of financing uneconomic low-income farmers. "Credit," he concludes, "must serve not merely to oil the wheels of a going concern but to build up the economy"—a point the *Eastern Economist* seems to have missed.

If one's head is swimming with problems and solutions, tensions and counter tensions, it might be worth taking note of what Swami Yatiswarananda has to say on "The Hygiene of a Peaceful Mind" in the London-published *Vedanta for East and West* (Vol. II, No. 3). Relaxing the mind through meditation, keeping passions under control, and canalising mental energy will, if the Swami is followed, bring the "deep peace of divine purity and divine realization."

J. W. T. COOPER.

## Recent Improvements in The Chinese Language

By Y. S. Leung (Hong Kong)

IT is no exaggeration to say that among all natural languages, Chinese has the most logical grammar. The Romanized languages possess the advantage of a phonetic system in which every word is constituted by letters, but they do not seem easier to learn to the foreigner because of their difficult rules of grammar, especially those relating to gender, tense, number and preposition.

Although Chinese is handicapped by the constitution of characters of which six main rules with numerous exceptions are to be found, its grammar very simple. The same verb may be used for present, past and future tenses and the same noun for masculine, feminine and neuter genders. When it is required to give details of the time, an auxiliary verb or an adverb to be appended is quite enough. Similarly, a noun with a prefix (sometimes suffix) meaning "male" or "female" will give details of the sex.

In addition, there is a certain and easy rule on the order of words in a sentence. The subject precedes the predicate and the object follows the verb. For instance, a statement, "Julius loves Julia" may be written in Latin as "Julius amat Juliam" or "Julius Juliam amat" or in any other form according to the liking of the writer. But in Chinese, it may be written in only one way: "Julius ai (to love) Julia."

Due to the immense number of dialects, foreigners are always puzzled as to which to choose when they are going to study Chinese. For those about to study, it should be stressed that there are two main dialects, namely, Mandarin and Cantonese. Mandarin is mainly spoken in Northern China, including Manchuria and North-Western China, and has been recognised as the National Dialect. Cantonese is widely used in Southern China, as in Canton, Hong Kong, Swatow, Amoy, etc., and by overseas Chinese in San Francisco, New York, Sydney, Singapore, London, South America and other places. In Shanghai, Shanghaiese is the chief dialect, but Mandarin is also understood.

In recent years, several movements have been founded, aiming at the romanization of Chinese characters. It seems that the Government of Communist China is appreciating the value of this system for mass education. It is being applied to Mandarin as well as to Cantonese.

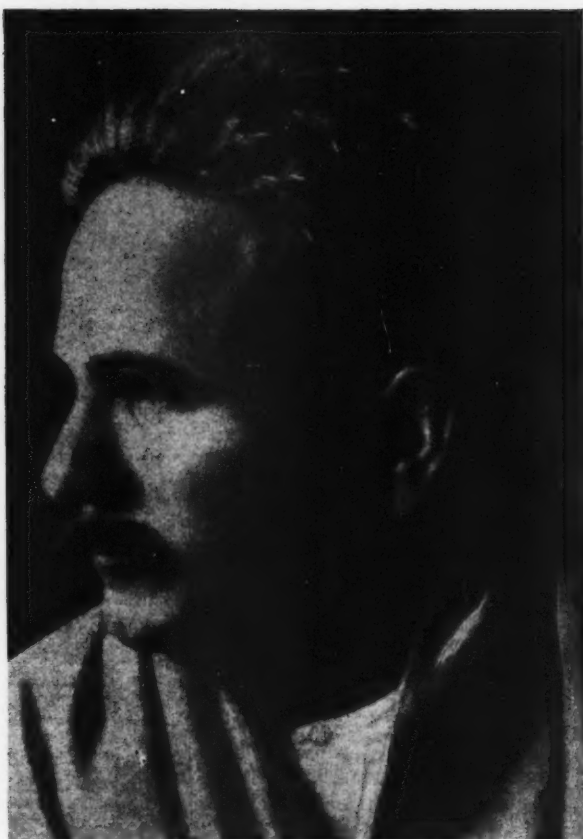
In 1947, an organization entitled Xianggang Zhongguo Sin Wenz Xyoxui was established in Hong Kong. It has published many books on the study of the romanized Chinese language and has offered tuition to the public.

## IQBAL'S CONCEPTION OF ART

By Nazir Hasan (Lahore, Pakistan)

CERTAIN judges of Art assert that since it is a source of pleasure to humanity, Art has a claim to recognition and existence just for this reason. Of these, Oscar Wilde is very enthusiastic in his views and says that so far as the delicacy and exquisiteness of Art can command approbation, it should be recognized as a matter worth adoration, and that it should be looked upon as a precious contribution of intellect just for the sake of its

perfection and charm, leaving the question of its utility aside. The correctness of this statement cannot be challenged easily, for, though usefulness is one of the main factors in determining the value of materials, it is not, after all, the decisive factor. Wilde was, therefore, quite earnest in his affirmation when he said that if a certain piece of Art is an exact likeness and a true reflector of the motive or feeling which initiated it, it is rightly worth



*Mohammad Iqbal*

appreciation. Close observation of facts, however, leads us to another line of thought and we see that all those masterpieces which have stood the test of time and survived through the ages are only those which along with the qualities of perfection and expression, had some wholesome features in them. In one way or another, they are sources of wisdom, morality and high-mindedness and can be called a precious heritage left to posterity by Master Minds of the past. They rightly deserve survival because their utility as vital elements in the delicate fabric of human culture warrants it. Thus we realize that if a production of human intellect and imagination does not conform with this universal law of utility, it is sooner or later condemned. Art is no exception to this rule and while judging its merits, one must constantly keep this principle in view.

Many thinkers, Westerners as well as those of the Orient, have exerted their powers of tongue and pen to persuade us not to be fascinated by the charms of Art which, with all its perfection and exquisiteness, fails to give a wholesome impetus to human thought, or at least, does not provide food for the imagination. On the other hand if a masterpiece, however perfect, gives rise to

degenerate feelings, then it has no claim to admiration; nor has it any right to recognition or survival.

Iqbal, the celebrated thinker of the East, had in the closing years of his life felt this truth very keenly. He was a poet all his life but under the surface of his poetry there was a calm, but nevertheless powerful flow of mysticism, philosophy and utilitarianism. All his works written after 1930 are marked with the dogma of utilitarianism. He has been very unsparing in rebuking those artists whose works do not fulfil this requirement and instead of providing nourishment to thought, merely aim at capturing the mind with unwholesome pleasure and with voluptuous indications and symbolism. In one of his brief poems, he has denounced vigorously these so-called Artists:

"Their imagination bears the rotten corpse of sensualism on its shoulders and their dark, fatal conceptions have the power of dragging whole nations to the graveyard."

"You will never find a trace of life in their creations, their idolatries merely contain the phantoms of death and annihilation."

"These fellows obscure all generous and noble aims from Man's eye. The soul they sing to sleep while the body is roused to sensuous activities by their notes."

"Shame on the poets, the painters and the writers of my country; the fiend of sensual enjoyment has got on the nerves of these poor creatures."

Here the poet's creed goes side by side with the conceptions of Bernard Shaw who, in his writings, frequently warns against the fast-approaching ruin of his nation because of their excessive indulgence in the pursuit of unprofitable Arts. The reasons for the downfall of various powerful ancient nations such as the Egyptians, the Assyrians, the Greeks and the Romans can be easily traced in their alienation of those principles of life which make a people sublime in the eyes of the world. Besides other injurious practices that sap the life-blood and undermine the prosperity of a nation, there has always been at work a fatal tendency towards the search of pleasure in un-

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wholesome Arts which had in them the slow poison of lust and luxury.

Iqbal insists on the principle of giving recognition to Art on the basis of its usefulness. If it is unable to give a noble impetus to life, it should be condemned forthwith. On one occasion he sings:—

"Whether it is the poet's melody or the Musician's rapturous note, it is futile if it fails to enkindle the fire of life in our bosom."

"Of what avail, comrades, is the morning breeze if with all its fragrance, it has no other effect but that of casting a death-spell on the garden which withers instantly under its breath."

On another occasion while visiting the Mosque of Cordova, built in the hey-day of the Omayyid dynasty in Spain, the poet paid homage to its architects in these words:—

"If the material used is brick or block or paint or the letter or sound, the nobleness of a masterpiece lies in the sublimity of the passion which gives the materials a shapely form, and in the fire blazing in the Artist's heart."

"All the miracles of Art are mortal with the exception of those which were created by noble impulses and finished with honesty and sincerity." It appears that the poet was much impressed by the simple yet striking architecture of this magnificent house of prayer.

On another occasion while visiting the mosque of Sher Shah Suri, within the ruins of the old Delhi Fort, Iqbal was even more forcefully moved by the grand and massive aspect of that forsaken, deserted mosque. According to a number of his associates he could appreciate a work of art if it could stir the imagination through its grandeur, and not merely through its beauty or excellence. In architecture all that could appeal to him in an edifice was its impressiveness. He could admire the grim Attock Fort and Sher Shahi Mosque more fondly than such marvels of architecture as the Taj or the excellent Delhi Mosque.

In *Zarb-e-Kaleem* (The Stroke of Moses), the last collection of his poems, this inclination towards utilitarianism is most conspicuous. The name of the book itself conveys an idea of grimness and force, and in it the poet explains his concepts in a vigorous and challenging manner. "Art," he explains, "must not be merely an image or imitation of Nature as is generally acknowledged to be the goal of excellence. It ought to be something beyond that and should have the quality of adding something to Nature."

*Zarb-e-Kaleem* as Iqbal has indicated in one of his letters is a "challenge to the Modern Age, its culture and the objectionable features of its civilization." In one of the poems of this collection, he summarises his message in brief but masculine and vigorous rhymes. "Music, Painting and Poetry," he says, "are fathomless oceans, containing precious pearls of most serene and mellow beauty. If they tend to give a noble outlet to our feelings, they are source of life and are praiseworthy as such. But if they fail to do so, let them be regarded as vanities—visions of human mind, futile, mean and sordid."



# BUDDHIST REVIVAL IN CEYLON

By Austin de Silva (Colombo)

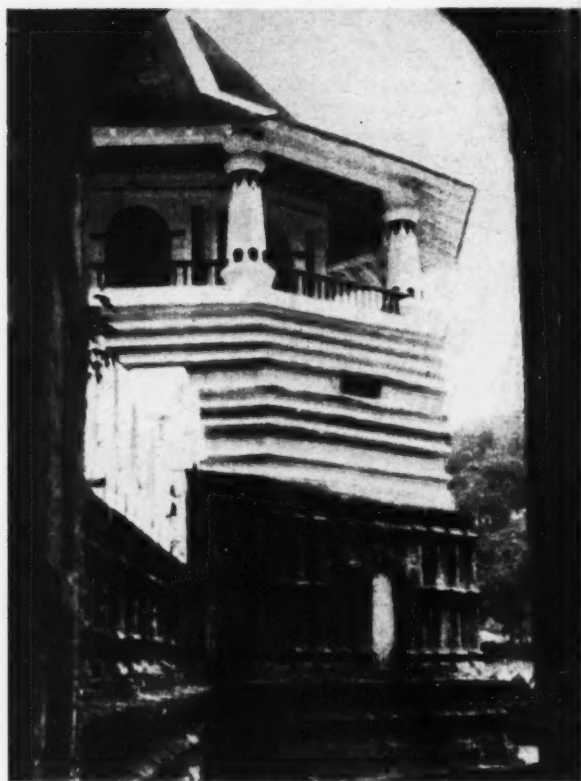
**I**N preparation for the celebration of the 2,500th year of Buddhism, there has been a marked revival of Buddhist activity in Ceylon. Special programmes for the event began to be arranged six years ago and they continue to be perfected in detail as the years pass. Organisations have been founded to celebrate the occasion and to make the anniversary one of worldwide significance. This revival has already had its repercussions in several parts of the world, specially in South-East Asia and in Japan. One of the fruits of this activity is the organisation of the World Fellowship of Buddhists in May, 1950. The inaugural meeting of this movement was held in the Assembly Hall of the Sinhalese Kings at the premises of the Dalada Maligawa or the Temple of the Sacred Tooth Relic of the Buddha at Kandy.

The Fellowship is a strong and more vigorous offshoot of the Ceylon Congress of Buddhists which has met annually for over thirty years now, and which is an older organisation than even the Ceylon National Congress, a political body, which paved the way to Ceylon's independence.

The first conference of the Fellowship was held in Ceylon and it was an unqualified success—a success beyond the expectation of the organisers themselves. Delegates from several Buddhist countries attended the meeting. They went away fortified with resolutions that called upon Buddhists the world over to unite and work in cooperation for the spread of the Dhamma, or the Teachings of the Buddha, in order to bring about the real peace and prosperity mankind now needs.

The second conference of the Fellowship was held a few months ago in Japan. Subjects of interest to Buddhists and Buddhism were discussed and suggestions made for the propagation of Buddhism in various parts of the world and the revival of Buddhism in countries where it is neglected.

A significant factor of the Fellowship is that it encourages Buddhists as Buddhists—whether they are of the Hinayana or Mahayana School, or of any other class or sect. The Mahayana School of Buddhism, particularly embraces several forms of worship chiefly in China and Japan. These, too, have been eligible for the Fellowship which might, in the long run, bring about a better under-



*The Temple of the Tooth in Kandy*

standing and a better relationship between the numerous sects of Buddhism the world over.

The leader and practically the founder of the Fellowship movement is a Sinhalese—Dr. G. P. Malalasekera, Professor of Pali and Buddhist Civilisation and Dean of the Faculty of Oriental Studies in the University of Ceylon. He was elected the first President of the Fellowship at its first meeting in Ceylon, in recognition of his untiring labours and unbounded enthusiasm in the cause of Buddhism. His one ambition is the propagation of Buddhism throughout the world, which he believes will bring back peace and plenty to mankind.

Another significant event which has brought Buddhists together and caused a revival of the Buddha's Teaching, was the exposition in several countries in South-East Asia of the relics of the Buddha's two chief disciples, Sariputta and Maha Moggallana. They have now been re-enshrined in a new Vihara built at Sanchi in Bhopal, India, where they were discovered by Cunningham 101 years ago and removed to the British Museum in London and preserved there.

These sacred relics of Sariputta and Maha Moggallana were first open to public exposition in Colombo when they were brought back from the British Museum. Tremendous crowds of devotees, crowds to the extent never before seen in Ceylon, with queues extending to over a mile in

length, thronged the Colombo Museum, when they were open to public exposition. The impetus that has been given to the revival of Buddhism, both in Ceylon and other South-East Asian countries, by the relics of the two chief disciples of the Buddha, have been as memorable and important as the influence they wielded when they were living and personally preaching the Dhamma.

As a result of this enthusiasm, several societies have sprung up to revive Buddhism in Ceylon and to propagate it abroad, chiefly in the Western countries and specially in Germany and the United States of America where, it is stated, the soil is now ready to receive the seed. A large number of inquiries have been made by individuals as well as institutions in these two countries regarding the availability of Buddhist literature in English.

One of the new societies in Ceylon, the Dhammadhuta Society, plans to preach Buddhism in Germany and in the Scandinavian countries. A fund is being collected to establish a Vihara, or a place of worship for Buddhists in Germany, and have one or two Buddhist monks resident there permanently.

At the same time, a proposal to establish a branch of the Colombo Young Men's Buddhist Association in the heart of London for the benefit of Buddhist students and Buddhists visiting London, will be placed before the Association's executive by Senator Cyril de Zoysa, who has just returned to Ceylon after a brief visit to the United Kingdom. London Buddhists themselves, of whom there is a good number now, have for some time been agitating for the establishment of a Vihara there.

## KEW GARDENS LINK WITH ASIA

By F. W. Sadler

ONLY one per cent. of the nearly two million annual visitors to Kew realise what lies behind the beauties of its gardens, for at Kew is the world's most important botanical research centre. Indeed, in the botanist's eyes, the gardens themselves are almost of secondary importance.

Standing on the 11-acre plot alongside Kew Green is the leading botanical centre of the British Commonwealth. Problems concerning rubber, bananas, cocoa and vital drugs are solved—even if it takes years—under the microscopes of the resident botanists. Every year, 4,000 scientists, many of them from South-East Asia and the Far East, make their pilgrimage to Kew to contribute to, or gain something from, the Royal Botanical Gardens' immense store of plant knowledge.

In the ivy-sheathed Herbarium, which has been described as a vast card index of every form of plant life, row upon row of narrow lockers contain some 6,000,000 paper folders filled with mounted botanical specimens. Here botanists cope with the 70,000 specimens sent in every year for identification. During each year some 2,000 new plants are described, filed and entered in the *Index Kewensis*, which has listed alphabetically the botanical names of every plant since 1885.

In the long greenhouses, economic plants grow in a moist, sticky heat, and Kew's 40 student horticulturists guard uninteresting looking shrubs, which, nevertheless, are most important. Here, too, botanists improve, among other things, the strain of rubber from Malaya. Malaya owes its prosperity to Kew where, 76 years ago, the first rubber plants were germinated from seeds from the Amazon and nursed to maturity.

An important part of the work of Kew has always been the collection, propagation and distribution of plants of all kinds, both decorative and economic. Routine work in the Herbarium includes the examination and iden-

tification of plants from all parts of the world, covering cereals, pasture grasses, fodder plants, poisonous plants, weeds and other plants of importance in the agricultural and pastoral industries of the Empire overseas.

Numerous living economic plants were despatched to the Colonies from the middle of the last century onwards, as well as seeds of all kinds. Some of these early introductions later gave rise to plantation industries such as Cinchona, or quinine (1861), and Hevea rubber (1876) in the East.

In 1864, young oil palms from West Africa were sent to the East, and within the next ten years young palms were sent to Calcutta, Madras, Ceylon, Jamaica and other parts of the tropics. About this time, a number of other tropical plants were widely distributed from Kew and included Ipecacuanha which was successfully cultivated many years later in Malaya. Eleven varieties, or so-called varieties, of West Indian cocoa were despatched from Kew to Ceylon in 1880, and were reported to have grown and fruited well. This was before Ceylon had become an important cocoa producer.

Kew played a great part in the distribution of the seed of the Chinese Tung tree (yielding a valuable drying oil) to various Empire countries. Encouraging reports on its cultivation came from Assam and elsewhere.

Many important medicinal plants which have been distributed from Kew are Chaulmoogra, a specific for leprosy; Artemisia from India (as a source of santonin); and species of Ephedra, yielding ephedrine.

In 1772, it was decided to send out from Kew the first of the long line of plant-hunters; he was Francis Masson, who went to the Cape of Good Hope to return with a number of new varieties. So began the many adventures which led not only to the enrichment of English gardens, but to the bringing of the quinine and rubber plants from South America to Kew, and the despatch of seeds to India and the East.

# THE MOUNTAIN

By Herbert Chambers

THE old shepherd stirred and muttered in his sleep but did not waken when Kahim rose from his bed and stole softly out into the chill morning air. Dawn was at hand; the world poised in a deathly stillness, a grey transparency shrouding the mountains and the barren foot-hills.

But as the boy walked quickly away from the cave, the long range of snow-capped peaks emerged from the mist, glowing a faint rosy pink and then fiery opal as the sun climbed swiftly from the east. Shafts of golden light gushed down into the deep ravines and out across the plain. One peak alone, towering above the rest, remained half-hidden in pearly mist, aloof and forbidding in its stark immensity.

The boy knew well that his father would beat him for again neglecting his work, but he did not care. His thoughts were only to reach the camp and to see Harris-Sahib again. It had been the same for a week now—ever since Harris had snatched him from the path of an avalanche and had narrowly missed being swept away by the crashing boulders himself, and had carried the boy to the camp and bound up a gashed leg. Since that day Kahim had attached himself to the camp, hanging about like a small puppy and following Harris everywhere in the hope of being noticed again, and talking to the native porters when the other was absent.

Kahim had learned much from them. He learned that the little group of white men were to attempt to climb the great mountain. Why, nobody could say. It was sheer madness. But who could assess the mind of a Sahib? Some of the older porters said that it had been tried before, but that all attempts had failed. Kahim could understand that. Kalet, the great mountain, could never be climbed by man. For was it not the haunt of djinns and evil spirits and the home of the terrible Lord of the Storms himself? His mother had told him that horrible demons, half-men, half-beasts, dwelt on the peak and whose breath was colder than the glacier ice, and would kill a man instantly.

"Why is the head of Kalet so often hidden in mist?" he had asked. "Because the evil spirits are working their spells and do not want the eyes of men to see them," replied the old woman. "All this is the truth," she added sagely. "Within my own knowledge five white Sahibs have tried to reach the summit and all have been killed." Kahim had never forgotten that.

Harris-Sahib was standing outside his tent when the boy found him. The tall man did not notice the small figure at first for he was staring up at the white-capped

peaks. Presently, however, he turned and spoke. "Hello, youngster! You're up bright and early. No work again today, eh?" For once, Kahim's white-toothed smile was absent; his face was unusually grave and his big eyes clouded with apprehension. "Is it today that you climb the mountain, sahib?" he asked.

"No," said Harris with a smile. "No, not today."

A little of the tenseness went from the boy's face. It was as though a dark brooding shadow had passed from his mind. An unaccustomed boldness seized him. "Why must you climb Kalet, sahib?" he asked. "Tell me why? Tell me the truth!"

Harris turned his gaze back to the jagged peaks. The truth? Strange that such a question should come from a shepherd boy. What would the boy think if he told him that the mountain was a supreme challenge? That he and his brother had climbed "in their blood"; that they had climbed together on countless expeditions, and that his brother had lost his life on Kalet three years ago! How could he explain—even to himself—the sudden fear that had gripped him; a fear that he must conquer or lose his self-respect for ever. How could he tell of the great love he had for his brother, and the knowledge that he must continue their task? How could a little Nepalese boy understand such things? Quite certainly, he could not. Quite possibly, he thought, if the kid has a brother, he hates the sight of him!

Harris looked down at the boy. "Maybe I'll tell you one day," he said. Then, changing the subject: "It's your birthday tomorrow, isn't it?"

"My tenth," replied Kahim drawing himself up. "I am almost a man." Harris rummaged in his pocket and produced a battered wrist-watch. The hands were missing, but it still ticked healthily. "Here, youngster," he said. "Something for you. Now cut along, I've got work to do." The boy took the watch with trembling fingers. "Sahib!" he stammered. "Oo-o, Sahib!" Harris watched the small figure walk slowly away. "Funny little blighter," he thought to himself and then dismissed him from his thoughts . . .

Kahim received a sound thrashing from his father that night and still ached when he arrived, later than usual, at the camp next morning. It was a strangely silent camp; the tent flaps were shut, no smoke arose from the cooking stove and the laughter and chatter of the porters was absent. With a chill fear clutching at his heart Kahim limped about until he came to an occupied tent. Inside sat a Sahib with telephones on his head. "Well, Kahim?" said the man. "What do you want?"



"Where is Harris-Sahib?" asked the boy anxiously. "Has he started—?"

"The big climb? Yes, they left at dawn, and are doing well so far. If you like—" The man broke off, turning to the radio set before him. "Hello! Base camp here," he said, speaking into the microphone. "Receiving you well. Go ahead with message. Over!" When he had finished speaking the boy was no longer there . . .

The storm broke with typical mountain suddenness. With the wind came driving sheets of hail that lashed

painfully at Kahim's face and legs; the sun was obscured by sombre ragged storm clouds. But the boy did not falter. Slowly, purposefully he began to climb the rough, loose-stoned track that wound ever upwards; a tiny plodding figure dwarfed into insignificance by the vast storm-wracked wilderness. He carried a small goatskin water-bag and a little rice, and on one slender wrist was strapped an old handleless watch. His dark eyes were fixed resolutely ahead.

In his heart was a great, all-consuming fear—and a great love.

## CONFUCIUS AND THE MUSIC-MASTER HSIANG

Translated from the Chinese

By Pham Van Ky

THE fame of Hsiang, the Music-Master, was spread abroad throughout the Kingdom of Chin and many were those who sang his praises

Confucius was one of his students and, at the age of twenty he set himself thoroughly to grasp, step by step, the stages of full initiation into the art of music. Hsiang had told him at the beginning that a knowledge of the ancient harmonies was the most precious gift antiquity had made to modern man. He then told him of how So Tan had led the world with his playing upon the harp; how when a certain Han played an instrument in his official quarters, the rafters gave back the melody for a period of three days. He taught the ancient appreciations and standards of the *shao* (trumpet) and the *Shao yü*; how the note *kung* displayed a grave modulation since it represented the Emperor—his majesty, his palace and the solemnity of ritual and ceremony. He taught him also that the note *chih* called to mind the swiftness with which affairs of State should be dealt with; that the note *yu* symbolized the harmonious relations which should subsist between those who strive toward the same end; and that the note *chüeh*, soft and restful, carried the signification of submission and the docility of the people.

Finally, when he had instructed Confucius in the upper and lower rules and regulations as well as in the uses of the "civil" and "military" strings, he took up his guitar in order to include in one piece (by the sage ruler, Wên Wang) a recapitulation of all his points of instruction.

As each note issued from the instrument, Confucius was plunged deeper and deeper into ecstasy and torment; where did the splendour of beauty begin—where did the glory of virtue end? How far back withdrew the shadows of judgment—how far forward thrust the feeling of duty? What useful purpose could be served by showing so clearly the true majesty, the palace of the ruler, the flow of affairs of State, the interrelation of things, the supremacy of law and the obedience of subjects, so long as one remained ignorant of the essential Wên Wang himself?

Half a moon went by in this way while Confucius still remained occupied with the same melody, without thinking for an instant of seeking further instruction from Hsiang. The latter's surprise at this was only paralleled by the pertinacity with which his pupil refused to take a further step. "Your playing," he said to Confucius, "has already reached the point at which mine stops. It would be better for you now to take up another style."

But Confucius begged him not to give him anything new until the true personality of the composer of the piece he had learned had been revealed to him. And Hsiang gave him five days more.

When the period was up Confucius asked for another five days, saying that if at the end of this time he had failed to obtain the real image he sought he would deem himself incapable of attaining it at all and he would renounce the study of music. None the less, he said, already he was beginning to see dimly as through a cloud. Hsiang gave way, feeling more of admiration toward his pupil than of surprise.

Hardly had the second period elapsed than the miracle occurred. And Confucius said to his master:—

"Your humble pupil has got what he wished. I seem now to be like a man who, from a great height, takes into view all the landscape right up to the horizon. Now, in performing the piece which you taught me, I am animated by the same feelings as informed the composer while he was assembling the notes. Better still, I have before me a well-known man; of medium height, a long face of a shade between black and white; having large eyes filled with softness, a noble bearing and with a voice which is at once high and sonorous. There is no room for doubt; it is the veritable Wên Wang, he who declared at the beginning of his reign: "My fate rests with the decrees of Heaven."

"You are indeed a Sage," said Hsiang and he prostrated himself before his pupil, struck by so much intelligence and humanity. "From today," continued Hsiang, "I consider myself your pupil."

# ECONOMIC SECTION

## Trade Prospects in Asia

*By the Rt. Hon. Arthur Bottomley, M.P.*

THE pattern of trade between the United Kingdom and the Asian countries has been built up on the basis of firmly established economic ties with India, Pakistan, Ceylon and Burma. The continuation of firm economic ties with these countries is essential for the future expansion of trade with Asia. Political antagonisms which, in the past, hampered trade, have now been removed, and the relationship between business men from each of the countries are now better than ever before. There is an understanding and trust, which has always existed, but has sometimes been submerged beneath the natural feelings generated by an alien power being the paramount authority in another land.

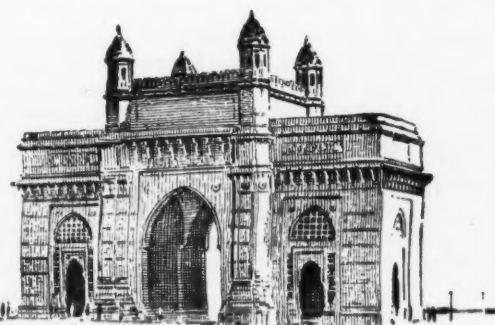
Mr. Bottomley, M.P., was Parliamentary Secretary for Overseas Trade at the Board of Trade during the Labour Government.

The present barrier to trade development lies in the desire of nationals to run their own business at once, and this is quite understandable, although it has its dangers. The large, well-established British business houses, with their great skill and experience, have much to offer the newly-established countries, if they are permitted to do so. A gradual building up of trade and association, with the assistance of these British firms, will bring economic benefits to these countries. The possibility of this kind of development has indeed been recognised by the more thoughtful members of all communities.

One of the fundamental problems preventing full development of trade with India is, of course, their balance of payment difficulty, and this is at times the cause of rather violent fluctuations in trade. What the Indians do is to prepare the foreign exchange budget calculated upon what they are able to earn by selling their goods overseas, plus the sterling balances released from the United Kingdom, but however careful their calculations, their forecasts can be upset by outside influences. For instance, there was a sudden demand for Indian exports following the outbreak of the Korean war, and likewise there has been a sudden need for food imports as the result of the failure of the monsoon. The Indians have made imports subject to controls in order to avoid spending their capital on goods which are not absolutely necessary to the country's economy. There are no restrictions upon the import of capital goods and raw materials, although on the other hand there is practically no market for cotton goods. Other goods are given import licences if they are necessary for the economy of the country. The future trading pros-

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jects in India depend very largely upon the success of the five year programme. The Indians are developing their resources by irrigation and power. The plan provides for an expansion of agriculture and community development, and they are to build up transport and communications. It will be seen that there is considerable scope for the expansion of trade in the field of engineering and communications.

In the case of Pakistan, she is able to produce all her own food, and has a surplus of jute, cotton, wool and tea products to export to other countries. A British trade mission went to Pakistan some time ago, and the possibilities of trade development in this country were found to be good.

Ceylon has rubber, tea and coconut products, and, of course, her economy depends very much upon the world demand for these materials. In her case, following the start of the Korean war, these goods were very much in demand, and the Ceylon Government allowed all kinds of goods to be imported freely following this boom. With the fall in demand for Ceylon's exports, she has found it necessary to impose controls, although for the present these do not operate against the United Kingdom. They are in operation against Japan, the United States of America and all the European Payments Union countries, except Britain. Ceylon has a development programme which is concentrating on agriculture. She is most desirous to avoid importing food, and this will be possible if her agricultural programme is successful. She is also building factories in order that she can make use of her own local raw materials. They will require manufactured goods for a long time to come, and there should be in Ceylon a

favourable market both for capital and consumer goods, subject always to the world demand for the primary products which she produces.

As far as Burma is concerned, she is a fortunate country, as she is able to produce a surplus of goods which are not only necessary for her own economy, but are also in world demand. The Burmese nationals are perhaps a little too hostile towards the old-established firms and this can damage trade between the United Kingdom and Burma, although it is only fair to say that the Burmese Government has given concessions to the United Kingdom, which are not granted to others. The Burmese have associated themselves with the Colombo Plan, and could have had technical assistance if they had made application, but as yet they have not done so. It is also possible for Britain to give great assistance to Burma under the United States Aid programme for reconstruction. If the Burmese do accept assistance from us, then there is no reason why their economy should not prosper even more, and the future trade between us will rise steeply with great benefits to all concerned.

A firm understanding between the United Kingdom and the other Commonwealth countries, together with Burma, will form a foundation upon which Far Eastern trade can be expanded, and the development of these countries will have its influence upon China and other Asian countries. The tendency will be to link complementary economies, not, as in the past, as between great nations and subject peoples, but as between partners bent upon improving the general standards of living of the mass of their inhabitants.

## BRITISH BORNEO OIL

By E. H. Rawlings



*Typical terrain of the Seria Field*

THE oilfields of British Borneo are now the largest producers of crude oil in the Commonwealth, and their output in 1951 was almost five million tons. Since 1949 they have replaced Trinidad as the Common-

wealth's foremost source of oil. The supply of oil is now a vital problem in the economic development and defence of the entire Far East; therefore, the importance of these oilfields cannot be overestimated.





The East Indies are the only producers of oil in any quantity in the Far East; the United States and the Middle East being the nearest alternative sources of supply. Since the war, shortage of shipping and increased demand elsewhere have reduced the supply of oil from these areas to the Far East, so that eastern countries, such as India, Japan and Australia, have to rely on the East Indies for their supplies. The whole of the Far East oil production, of which British Borneo provides more than one-third, is well below actual requirements.

Discovered in 1929, the Seria oilfield, the largest in the Commonwealth, is situated in the State of Brunei on the north coast of Borneo, and adjoins the Miri oilfield in Sarawak. The latter has rapidly declined since it reached its peak output of 760,000 tons in 1929. Production in Seria reached 869,000 tons in 1940 when 157 wells had been drilled on the land and in the sea, but the Japanese invasion of the East Indies interrupted production, and in 1945 the Japanese left only destruction behind them. But rehabilitation of the field rapidly progressed and the first cargo of crude oil was exported to Australia for refining in March, 1946. Production has since made great headway with a present output of more than 15 million tons a year.

Two types of crude oil are available in Seria—the waxy and non-waxy, the former being most abundant. Half the output is processed at the Lutong Refinery in Sarawak, and the remainder exported. The waxy crude oil is suitable for gasoline, tractor fuel, gas oil and fuel oil. Both are free from sulphur often found in the Middle East crude oils. Therefore, the Seria oilfield is of exceptional value. All the oil for refining at Lutong is carried by pipeline across the border.

The whole of the Seria oilfield has been under the control of a single company working on a 50 years' lease. The company has to provide every possible facility

and service for its employees in this sparsely populated tropical country, which had to be cleared of jungle and swamp before any amenities like schools, hospitals, houses and clubs could be provided. The houses are designed according to the different grades of employees who occupy them. By the end of 1952 the company had planned to complete 346 staff houses and 1,250 houses for labour and further expansion is anticipated.

In British Borneo the company employs a staff of about 1,000 composed mainly of British, Dutch, Malays, Indians and Chinese. The labour force of about 6,000 are mainly Chinese, Malays, Indians and Dyak. All-Indian crews are numerous because they are well suited to drilling. Much of the labour force is employed at Lutong and a few at Miri. Temporary dwellings built of palm leaves on a framework of jungle poles have often to be constructed for the staff, but these are all fitted with the usual modern comforts.

Administrative and engineering problems are also created because exploitation and drilling are operated away from the established centres. At present wells are being drilled at Bulak Setap and at Subis in the interior of Sarawak about eleven miles away from the sea. In order to reach the Bulak Setap well, it has been necessary to build a 30-mile road from Miri, whereas the Subis well is reached by craft up the Niah river.

A promising new source of production may lie under the sea off Seria. It is planned to drill wells into the sea bed for the purpose of expanding the Seria field. Four separate submarine oil wells can be drilled from a single fixed platform for this project. One platform will be able to serve the testing of a wide area. The platforms themselves are supported in tubular steel jackets and must be capable of standing extreme weights.

The economic and social structure of British Borneo has undergone a change through the development of oil. Besides providing amenities for some thousands of the population, the oil company supplies some electricity and water services, assists the Government health services, and provides all transport facilities. Only a small area of the undeveloped island has so far been devoted to oil production. The industry provides the Governments of Brunei and Sarawak with revenue never before known.

In 1951 the State revenue of Brunei was Straits \$68,719,000 of which \$24 million was provided by oil royalties and mining rents. This has enabled the Brunei Government to introduce health and educational services, and to develop agriculture as well as to finance its own part in the Colombo Plan, while Sarawak and North Borneo have to use overseas capital for this purpose. Though the industry has augmented Sarawak's economy, the royalties have been small since the depreciation of the Miri field.

Little claim on the U.K. limited dollar sources has been made in developing these oilfields, and, moreover, their production has already contributed materially to the expanding markets of the sterling oil companies.



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## The B.I.F. 1953

**L**ORD ALDENHAM, the Chairman of the Westminster Bank, stated recently that "We have now to face 1953, and the official prediction that the coming year is going to be tougher than the last seems to be justified by the increasing competition we are meeting in our overseas trade."

It is expected that the forthcoming British Industries Fair (April 27 to May 8), which will take place shortly before the Coronation, will attract more overseas visitors than the Fairs in the past.

### UK EXPORTS TO SOUTH-EAST ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

The following table shows the value of UK exports to the main markets in S.E. Asia and the Pacific during the first ten months of the last three years. With the exception of Australia which drastically cut her imports at the beginning of 1952, UK exports to other parts of this region during the first ten months of 1952 were higher than those during the corresponding period of 1950, and in some cases even higher than during 1951, when peak prices were paid for manufactured goods.

	First 10 months of the year		
	1950	1951	1952
India ... ..	78.2	95.4	95.0
Pakistan ... ..	33.8	37.5	49.0
Singapore ... ..	24.0	39.3	36.7
Fed. of Malaya ... ..	18.8	32.1	33.4
Ceylon ... ..	13.8	20.0	21.0
North Borneo (inc. Labuan)	2.0	1.8	2.3
Sarawak ... ..	0.6	0.9	1.2
Hong Kong ... ..	21.9	29.1	23.2
Australia ... ..	211.6	259.7	192.4
New Zealand ... ..	70.9	82.6	99.6
Fiji ... ..	1.4	1.7	2.6
Burma ... ..	7.2	9.1	12.6
Thailand ... ..	5.3	9.3	11.4
Indonesia ... ..	6.7	10.6	14.1
China ... ..	2.5	2.5	2.2
Japan ... ..	1.8	8.0	7.0
Philippines ... ..	1.6	1.9	1.7

(All figures in million £)

Lately British firms were able to reduce their delivery terms and industrialists declare that their prices have also become more competitive in relation to those of foreign manufacturers.

### UK TEXTILE EXPORTS

The main features of this year's Fair will be the Textile Section. Over 180 leading manufacturers will show their latest products.

In this connection it is noteworthy that while 1952 was a year of recession in the textile trade, UK textile exports to India, Pakistan, Burma, Thailand and China have increased.

The following tables show some details of the development of textile exports from UK to that area:

Cotton Yarns and Manufactures	First 11 months	
	1951	1952
India ... ..	2.5	3.1
Pakistan ... ..	6.0	6.6
Malaya ... ..	8.3	5.3
Ceylon ... ..	2.1	1.5
Hong Kong ... ..	2.0	1.9
Australia ... ..	36.3	14.6
New Zealand ... ..	11.8	8.9
Fiji ... ..	0.5	0.3
Burma ... ..	1.9	2.0
Thailand ... ..	0.4	0.5
Indonesia ... ..	1.6	0.9
Woollen and Worsted Yarns and Manufactures		
	1951	1952
India ... ..	4.5	4.6
Pakistan ... ..	1.0	1.4
Malaya ... ..	1.0	1.0
Hong Kong ... ..	4.7	4.3
Australia ... ..	15.1	3.6
New Zealand ... ..	10.6	6.0
Burma ... ..	0.2	0.4
China ... ..	0.4	0.8
Japan ... ..	2.6	1.8

(All figures in million £)

### COMMONWEALTH SECTION

The Commonwealth Section is expected to represent one of the attractions of the Fair. The Hong Kong Government Office, The High Commission for Pakistan, and The Commission for Malaya in the UK are among the regular exhibitors. It is a pity that the High Commission for India is not represented at the Fair and it is hoped that in future India will again take part.

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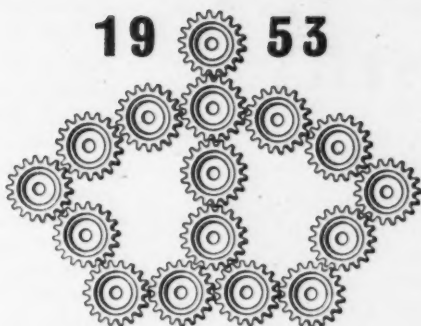
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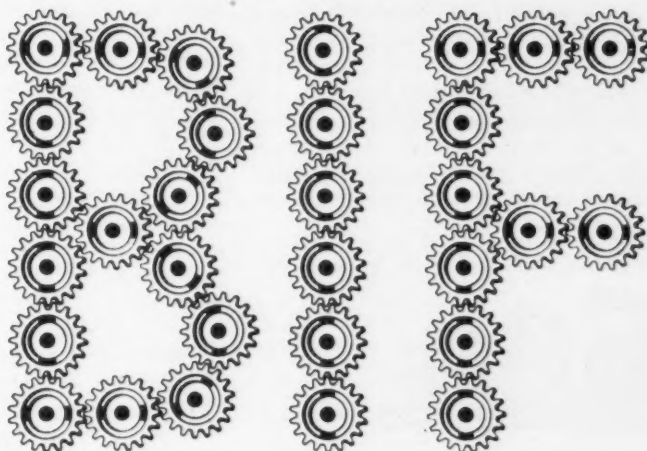
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***27 April — 8 May***

# CHINA'S TEA INDUSTRY

*By John Cardew*

**T**HE emphasis placed on the increasing output and improved quality of China's tea by Chinese delegates to the Moscow economic conference was to be expected. Exhibits of Chinese tea at a number of world trade fairs in which China has participated during the past 12 months (in Prague, Leipzig, Bombay and Karachi) have made it clear that the Central People's Government of China is determined to make a strong bid for something like China's early share in the world tea trade.

Revival of the tea industry was accorded a high priority immediately after the Kuomintang had been defeated on the mainland of China and the introduction of new techniques and state buying direct from growers have already resulted in a considerable expansion of exports, particularly to the Soviet Union and the countries of Eastern Europe. China's green tea in particular, delegates to the Moscow conference said, "has established

a reputation" among the peoples of the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe.

Even in 1948, after years of civil war during which large tracts of tea plantations in central, south and east China were either destroyed or allowed to run to seed, China was still the world's third largest exporter of tea. The volume of exports, however, was only some 12,000 metric tons compared with the quantity of 158,000 metric tons marketed overseas by the largest exporter, India. A bumper crop of 60,000 tons in 1950 and the development of Soviet and East European markets enabled China to increase her exports to double the 1949 level, which was believed to have been about the same as in 1948. Although figures for last year are not available, the target was set higher than in the previous year.

In contrast to India where Government policy tends to discourage home sales in favour of exports, China is combining a drive for a greater share in export markets with steps to increase home consumption. The aim of the Government in this respect was revealed in a recent Peking radio broadcast which pointed out that "if the 400 million peasants of China consume only an extra half pound of tea each per year, they will buy up another 200 million pounds—the equivalent of what China exported in 1886, the heyday of the trade."

Under Chiang Kai-shek China's vast Northwest provided a market for some 12,000,000 kilogrammes of brick tea annually and in addition to this demand, inevitably made larger by agrarian reform, the Tibetans are now beginning to buy more tea than ever before from the other provinces of China. Thus aromatic Puerh black tea, a strong variety that forms an essential part of the Tibetan diet, has just been restored to the market. It is China's only large-leaved tea and is grown in the Puerh region of Yunnan Province where annual production is in the neighbourhood of 4,000 tons. Since 1950 tea consumption in Tibet has been increasing, especially as a result of the restoration of motor traffic on the Szechuan-Sikang highway which is being extensively used by Lhasa merchants in growing exchanges of Tibetan products for Chinese tea and industrial goods.

The tea industry in China is directed by the State-owned China Tea Company. Since 1950 the company's production and marketing programme has placed particular emphasis on improving the quality and output of black tea, which has always been a major export item and which is now going in large quantities to the Soviet Union, Mongolia and the East European countries. During the past year the company has been establishing six processing plants with up-to-date machinery in Hupeh, Hunan and Kiangsi Provinces, which produce one-third of China's total tea output. These plants are now concentrating exclusively on production of four of the best grades of tea for export. A number of counties in the three provinces are now growing only black tea and a recent announcement that the black tea area in East China is also to be expanded said that the reason was the rising



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Union demand from abroad. Although the Chinese Government is the sole exporter of all tea to the Soviet Union, private trading is continuing for other markets, notably Africa.

Since its formation in 1949 the China Tea Company has had important success in stimulating tea growing in all the areas of the country where the plant has been cultivated for centuries. Loans of both money and seed have been advanced to growers, and instructors in black tea cultivation have been made available at Government expense. Gradually, slow and expensive handicraft methods are being replaced by machinery in the manufacturing industry and big processing plants like those already working in Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi are being built all over the country.

Before the war most of China's tea exports went to Britain, the US and North Africa. During the war, and especially after Japan had overrun some of the most important tea-growing areas, exports dropped to a negli-

gible proportion of their former volume, only 700 kilogrammes having been sent abroad in 1943 compared with 34,000,000 kilogrammes in 1940. British imports have been dropping steadily since 1938 and in 1951 amounted to only 157,000 pounds, or less than 3 per cent. of what they were in the last year before the outbreak of the Second World War.

#### U.K. TEA IMPORTS FROM CHINA

(Thousands of lbs.)					
1938	1947	1948	1949	1950	1951
6,986	1,340	1,460	780	389	157

It is noteworthy, however, that Britain has never ceased to use appreciable quantities of Chinese tea ever since the trade first started with the United Kingdom so long ago. It seems certain, too, that when British-Chinese trade again assumes a volume more in keeping with its past than is at present the case, tea will continue to be an important export commodity on the Chinese side.

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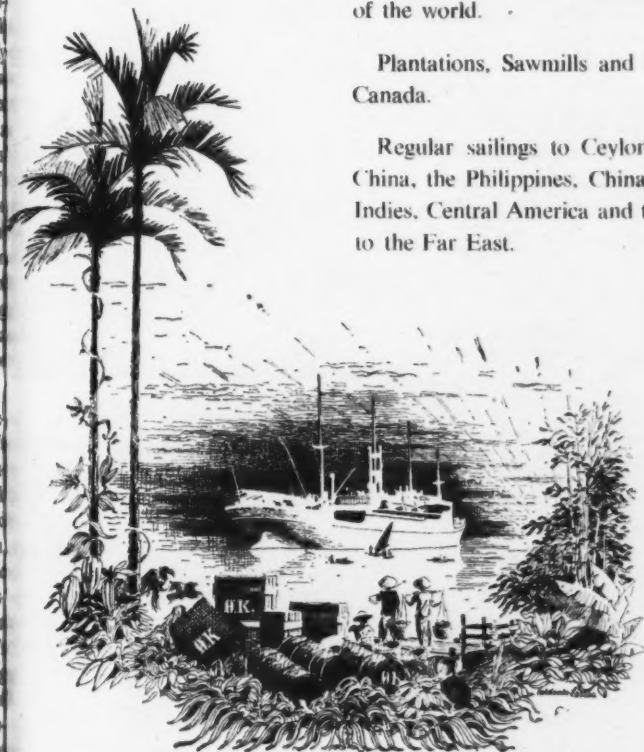
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